

# THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

## *Review of Reviews.*

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### THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*Will Russia  
Prolong  
the War?*

The topics most widely discussed last month were (1) the probable effect of the fall of Port Arthur, and (2) Russia's domestic troubles, including the massacre of citizens by soldiers at St. Petersburg on Sunday, January 22d. The main facts regarding the conflict at the capital and the surrender of Port Arthur are set forth in other paragraphs of this department of the REVIEW. With the ending of the terrible siege of that great fortress, the major activities of the war were obliged to await the opening of spring weather in Manchuria. Obviously, the destruction of the Russian fleet, and the removal of the Russian garrison from the stronghold on the coast, will have liberated a large additional Japanese army to offset the Russian recruits at the fighting front, where the two main armies are now in winter quarters. The Baltic fleet had got as far as Madagascar on its way to the relief of Port Arthur. Its movements were involved in some mystery, but it was understood that orders for its return to the Baltic had been promptly issued. It is said that Russia will at once enter upon the construction of an immense new navy, giving the contracts to various foreign shipyards. But Japan can also acquire new ships, and the present naval prestige of the Japanese is of itself enough to counterbalance a considerable Russian superiority in the number of ships and guns. To end the war at this time would require moral courage on Russia's part.

*Japan's Ardor  
and  
Confidence.*

The Japanese at home are suffering a good deal from the economic privations incident to the cost of the war and the derangement of industry, but there is no sign of wavering or faltering in the unsurpassed patriotism of the Japanese. Their victories have enhanced their national and racial pride, and added something—if that were possible—to the superb confidence they show in their government and their military and naval

leaders. The Japanese feel themselves to be very much the smaller power, and in every sense the innocent and aggrieved party, encouraged by and entitled to the preponderant sympathy of the world at large. They remember that under somewhat similar circumstances the most minute nationality in the world,—namely, the Boers of South Africa,—held the whole British Empire at bay for nearly three years in what proved to be a war of colossal dimensions. The Japanese are fighting for what they regard as vital to their national existence, and the scenes of the war are not very remote from their sources of supply.

*Russia's  
Chances of  
Victory.*

The Russians, on the other hand, are fighting in a war which probably a great majority of the Russian people regard as a mistake from the outset. They are striving for dubious additions to an already overgrown empire, at a vast distance from the main centers of Russian population. There were many of us who believed, when hostilities first broke out, that the Japanese would be victorious in a short campaign, but that the Russians would almost inevitably win by sheer preponderance of material and financial resources, in a war of four or five years' duration. But as matters now stand, it would seem as if the Japanese had fully an even chance of victory in a war of several years, provided they can firmly resist the temptation to penetrate too far toward Moscow. The one clear deduction from all the facts is that this terrible war ought to be promptly ended, and that the Russians and Japanese might even now, while the bitterness of a Manchurian winter enforces a truce, agree upon terms of an honorable and permanent peace. The Japanese could afford to be very reasonable and conciliatory, and the great Russian Empire could much better afford to stop fighting and address itself to the peaceable work of building up its empire than to persist in a bloody and costly war in which the Russian people have neither heart nor hope.

*Japan and  
Russia Should  
Be Friends.*

It would seem that the principal reason for Russia's refusal to talk of peace lies in the belief that there would be involved a loss of repute and prestige that would practically destroy her international position. But such a belief shows folly and lack of discernment. The respect of the world for Russia would be increased in a marked degree by the spectacle of sound and prudent statesmanship rising superior to the distorted pride of the military party and stopping at once the risks and losses of a useless war. Mr. Stead points out that in one regard the war has been productive of a certain form of very real human gain. Whereas the French and Germans, after their struggle of a quarter-century ago, hated each other more than ever before and have remained in an attitude of bitterness toward each other through all these years, Mr. Stead declares that the result of the present war has been to make the Japanese and Russians think much more highly of each other than when the war began. The Russians looked upon the Japanese with contempt, and now they regard them with respect as antagonists of marvelous courage and prowess, and also of unusual magnanimity. The Japanese, on their part, know that the Russians also are of stubborn courage, and that they are a fine and worthy race of men. The Russian Empire is too great to suffer any serious humiliation in accepting philosophically the facts of defeat in the far East and in working out with Japan the terms of a mutually generous and honorable treaty of peace. If it were once decided between the two governments to substitute the principle of friendship for the principle of hostility, it would be found not too difficult to agree upon the details of a settlement under which the vital interests of both countries would be duly conserved. At this stage it ought to be possible to end the war without the payment of indemnity on either side, merely through the defining of the respective interests of the two powers in Korea and Manchuria. If the war is protracted, one side or the other will in the end have to pay an indemnity,—a humiliating after-blow that perpetuates ill-feeling and always leads the defeated power to plan for a future war.

*The  
Question  
of China.*

The interests of every neutral power in the world will be increasingly harmed and jeopardized by the decision on Russia's part to carry the war to the bitter end. Thus far, it has been possible to keep the area of the war limited in accordance with the views set forth in Secretary Hay's note and accepted by both belligerents; but if the war goes on, it will not be easy to maintain

Chinese neutrality. Russia last month sent a very significant note to the powers reminding them of previous notes in which she had called attention to the manner in which the Japanese had been allowed to use certain Chinese islands in violation of neutrality principles, and, further, to the hostile acts of Chinese subjects in Manchuria. The Japanese, on their part, were ready with a reply in which they undertook to show that the Russians had derived more benefit in one way or another from the use of Chinese territory or resources than had their opponents. Both parties were probably correct in their statements of fact. It all goes to show how seriously China might have been involved if no attempt had been made to keep her out of the imbroglio. The things complained of are relatively unimportant. They have been mere incidents.

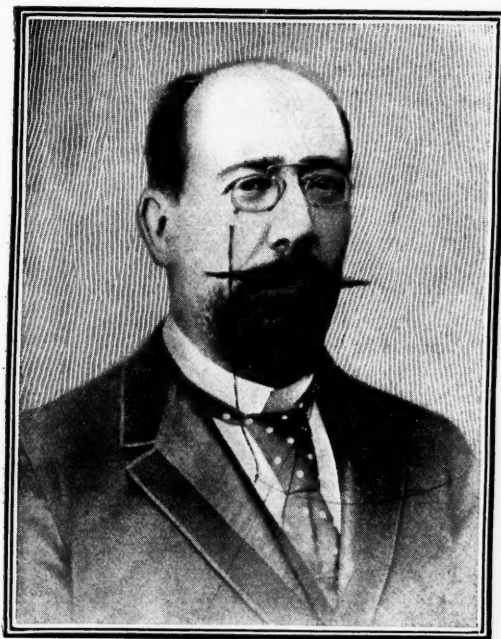
*China Must  
Be Kept  
Neutral.*

Every effort must be made, however, to see that Chinese neutrality is more strictly maintained by the Chinese authorities themselves and more completely respected by both belligerents. The Russian attitude gives ground for suspecting that the government at St. Petersburg may be trying to lay down a foundation of excuses that could be used to justify a bold invasion of Chinese territory later on, when military exigencies might make it strongly desirable for Russia to enter upon certain operations that would require an occupation of China proper. Such conduct on Russia's part might involve several other powers in serious controversy. It will be wise and prudent for the Japanese to use the utmost endeavor to see that Russia shall have no further excuses for seeking to withdraw from the agreement to limit the theater of the war and to respect the neutral position of the Chinese Government.

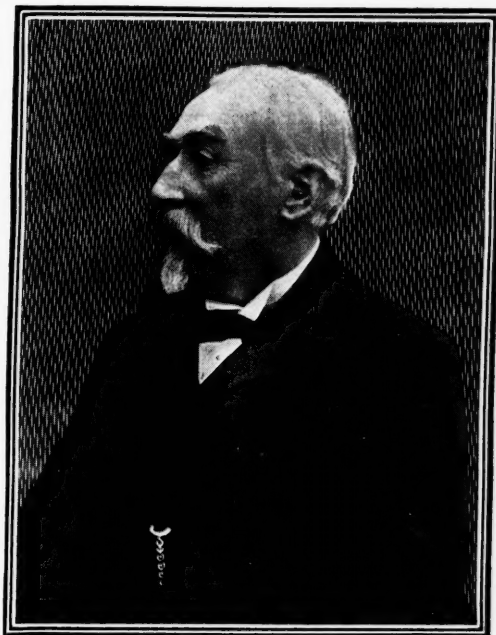
*Interest of  
the Powers  
in Peace.*

Although France is the ally of Russia, and England is the ally of Japan, there is a firm understanding between the governments of England and France to the effect that they will not allow themselves to be drawn into the conflict. The English have many reasons for desiring to have peace established at an early day, and the French, who have loaned several thousands of millions of francs to the Russians, do not wish to see the credit of the Muscovite Government any further impaired, nor do they like to think of the chance of their being obliged to put their navy at the service of their ally under some change in the situation that might arise if the war should go on. French policy and sentiment are loyal to the arrangement with the Czar, but they are also, at present, very pacific and neighborly.





M. MAURICE ROUVIER.  
(The new French premier).



M. ÉMILE COMBES.  
(Who retired as French premier last month.)

*Political  
Changes in  
France.*

It is true that there came about a change of ministry in France last month; but, fortunately, this had no effect at all upon the foreign policy of the great republic. The prime minister, M. Combes, had not been defeated; but his majority had been much reduced through differences of opinion that had arisen upon one side and upon another. Having obtained a vote of confidence by a narrow margin after a protracted parliamentary fight, he had the excellent judgment to resign with his whole cabinet at a moment when he was thus able virtually to dictate the organization of the ministry that was to follow. This is what had happened when M. Waldeck-Rousseau, after his long and successful period as premier, had retired and brought about the administration of M. Combes as a virtual continuation of the radical republican government that had served France so creditably. M. Combes had been in office nearly three years. His retirement was with the prospect that his minister of finance, M. Rouvier, would become premier, and that his sagacious and talented minister of foreign affairs, M. Delcassé, would remain undisturbed at his post. And thus the change of ministry in France means a personal readjustment of the portfolios rather than any change of parties or of general policies. For instance, one of the things that had most discredited the Combes

administration had been the system of espionage that had grown up against army officers in the government struggle to diminish the political influence of the clerical and reactionary elements. M. Combes had frankly accepted the verdict of public opinion against him on this issue, had caused the retirement of General André from the cabinet, and had for the first time in the history of the French Republic put a civilian, M. Berteaux, at the head of the War Department. It was understood, in the retirement of the Combes ministry, that M. Berteaux would be reappointed minister of war. In a general way, the new ministry will undoubtedly continue the policy which looks to a separation of Church and State and the development of elementary education as a civil and secular rather than a clerical function. Furthermore, since the much-discussed proposals for an income tax in France had been brought forward by Rouvier himself as minister of finance in the Combes cabinet, it is quite certain that the income tax will form an important part of the policy of an administration in which M. Rouvier is slated for a chief place. There was delay in the formation of the new ministry, due to the fact that President Loubet was called away from the capital by the illness and death of his mother, who had survived to the age of ninety-two. But it was certain that the advanced republican coali-

tion would hold, and that the chief policies of Waldeck-Rousseau and Combes would govern the programme of the new ministerial group.

*Delcassé  
Remains on  
Guard.*

Best of all, however, for the outside world is the knowledge that M. Delcassé is to remain at the foreign office, and that his efficiency is abundantly recognized in France without regard to groups or parties. He will continue to advocate good relations with England, Italy, and Spain; will hold to the strong friendship now existing between the United States and France, and will do all that he can to promote peace in the Orient, without saying or doing anything to disrupt the Franco-Russian alliance. His influence was greater than that of any other man in removing the warlike tension between Russia and England that arose from the North Sea incident, and he may be counted upon to do what he can to persuade Russia, at what would seem the earliest feasible moment, to make peace with Japan.

*Germany and  
Russia.*

The position of Germany is not so easy to understand as that of some other countries; yet it is evident that Germany has been making use of Russia's recent difficulties to bring about closer relations between the two countries. This is natural enough, for excellent reasons. The vast undeveloped Russian Empire lies near to Germany, and the opportunities that Russia affords for the extension of German trade are by far the best that the enterprising German manufacturers can find in any direction. Russia must for a long time export foodstuffs and raw materials and import manufactured goods. A recent commercial treaty between Russia and Germany favors German commercial ideas, and the Berlin financiers have been encouraged by their own imperial government to float Russian loans and thus ultimately to give Germany a stronger commercial and financial hold in Russia than the French will have. The great German bankers and financiers, however, belong for the most part to the Jewish race, and it is thought that the bad treatment of the Jews by the Russian Government may affect their willingness to aid in the floating of Russian war loans. Undoubtedly, Germany has been finding a large market in Russia for materials of various sorts required in the promotion of the war; but war trade, after all, is not so lucrative as peace trade, and the Germans will make a great deal more money out of the peaceful development of Russian agriculture and general business conditions than they can make out of the demands of a war that paralyzes Russian economic life.

*English  
Harmony on  
Foreign  
Questions.*

In England, where there is violent difference of opinion upon domestic issues, and where the overthrow of the Balfour government is only a question of weeks or months, there is almost unprecedented agreement with respect to matters of foreign policy. Lord Lansdowne's conduct of the foreign office is approved by the Liberals as well as by the Conservatives. Both parties rely upon the maintenance of friendly relations with America; both approve of the restoration of good feeling between England and France; both are prepared to stand by the terms of the Japanese alliance; both would be disposed to aid as far as possible in the maintenance of the integrity and neutrality of China; both would be very glad to see an end of the present war. Thus, a change of ministry in England and the incoming of the Liberal party will not in any important sense affect the present foreign relationships of the London government. The Liberal government will probably support with entire cordiality the present policy of bold enlargement and concentration of the British navy, and it will also sustain the recent reorganization of the army system, which promises excellent results. It will encounter difficulty in endeavoring to hold the support of the Irish party, and further difficulty in trying to deal with questions affecting the Church and education. It may not be able to hold together long, and then the Chamberlainites count upon having their innings on a programme of imperialism and preferential tariffs.

*Canada and  
the United  
States.*

A Liberal government in England will be likely to be much better disposed toward reciprocity arrangements between the United States and Canada than would a Chamberlain administration. All the natural tendencies are in favor of the removal of arbitrary trade restrictions across the continent of North America. Last month a great forestry congress was held at Washington under the auspices of the Department of Agriculture. It was attended, not only by forestry experts and by official delegates from many States, but also by numerous representatives of the lumber industry, of the railroads, and of other lines of business that are concerned in one way or another with the use of forest products. The congress disclosed a remarkable advancement in the American propaganda for the protection and the wise and scientific use of our remaining forest areas. Our best possible protection, however, for the present would lie in the removal of the tariff restrictions that now prevent our getting the benefit of the immense forests that lie to the north of us in Canada.



THE GOOSE THAT LAID THE GOLDEN EGGS.

From the Herald (New York).

Give Us  
Canadian  
Lumber  
and Pulp.

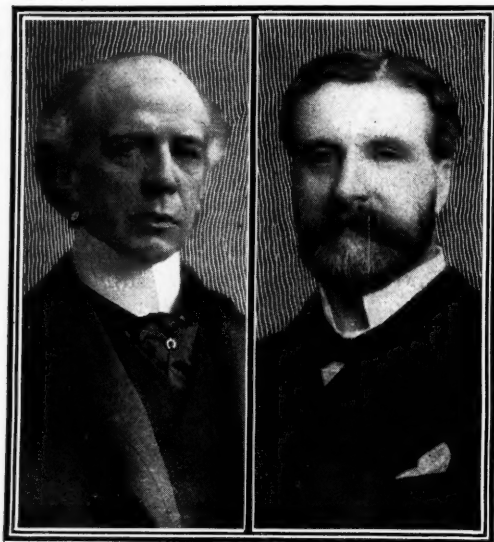
Various kinds of lumber for building and manufacture are becoming extremely scarce and high-priced in this country, and our people are subjected to needless hardship by the present lumber schedules. Furthermore, the newspapers of the country are up in arms against the alleged combinations of wood-pulp and paper mills, in consequence of which the price of white paper has been radically advanced. The common white paper used by the printers is made entirely from wood-pulp, and for this purpose the spruce is far better than any other kind of wood. The spruce forests of this country are fast being used up, and the best of those that remain are to an already great extent monopolized by the interests that control the output and price of paper. The spruce forests of Canada, on the other hand, are so vast as to be practically inexhaustible. It would be beneficial to our people, and at the same time advantageous to Canada, if our markets were freely opened to the products of the Canadian forests, whether in the form of lumber or of pulp. If it were not found possible by this means to prevent monopoly and keep down the price of paper, it would be appropriate to open our markets freely to finished paper products, whether from Canada or from any other place in the world.

Advantages of  
Reciprocity.

Nothing could be more ridiculous than the efforts of those who sit down with a pencil and the statistics of former reciprocal trade relations between this country and Canada and attempt to prove that reciprocity is harmful to us because the so-called "balance of trade" figures out one way or another. Since it would be eminently advantageous for our people to buy the lumber products of Canada, while it would be obviously beneficial to the Canadians to sell their lumber products in our market, it would be just as absurd to attempt to figure out which country was most benefited as it would be to try to find out whether the State of New York or the State of Pennsylvania gains most by the existing freedom of trade with each other which they enjoy under the beneficent mandate of the federal constitution. Nor would it harm the people of the United States if the wheat and other agricultural products of the Canadian Northwest could be hauled to market over our railroads and freely utilized in our mills. It is true that the great flour-millers of Minneapolis and the Northwest are now permitted to bring in the spring wheat of Manitoba under bond and reduce it to flour as an incident in their exporting it to foreign countries. But they must not grade it in such a way as to retain any portion of it for sale in the United States, unless they are willing to pay the import duty on wheat. Under this arrangement, there is not a penny of benefit to the American farmer. The Canadian wheat this last season was of better quality,—decidedly richer in gluten and nutritious elements,—than the wheat grown in our States. The tariff arrangement merely deprived our own people of the benefit of buying flour made from the best wheat, while also depriving the millers of the advantage of so blending varieties and grades as to produce the results in flour that they find best adapted to the demands of the market. It is hard to see how in any broad view of the subject we should not be benefited rather than harmed in this country by the admission of agricultural products from Canada, provided the Canadians were willing on their part to admit reciprocally the varied supplies that the farmers of Manitoba and the Northwestern country would naturally wish to buy with the money that they obtain from the sale of their wheat, cattle, and other products.

To Benefit  
the Farmers.

The American farmer has more to gain through the building up of the transportation and manufacturing centers of this country, with their demand for the varied products of the farm, than he can possibly lose through the competition of Cana-



SIR WILFRID LAURIER.  
(Premier of Canada.)

SIR ROBERT BOND.  
(Premier of Newfoundland.)

dian staple products with his own. In short, the reasons why it would be beneficial all around for the United States and Canada to establish reciprocity in trade are much the same as those that make it mutually beneficial for Germany and Russia to exchange their surplus products. We shall, of course, be met at every step in the attempt to establish proper trade relations with Canada by the selfish clamor of men who would rather see the country at large lose a million dollars of benefit than incur the possible risk of losing a dollar themselves. It is true that there is never any great or general good to be accomplished by legislation that does not seem to be incidentally detrimental to some interest or other. When the substitution of the electric chair for the gallows is under consideration, we must not expect the hangman's union to keep silent. There has been a renewal of correspondence between this country and Canada with respect to the early reassembling of the Joint High Commission. There is some encouragement for the belief that either through the agency of that body, now long in suspense, or else in some other way, there may be resumed a serious attempt to confer regarding the possibility of negotiating a commercial treaty between our government and that at Ottawa.

*The Initiative Belongs to Us.* The Canadian government is not eager to undertake negotiations, because it has at present very little faith in the prospect of getting a proper treaty

ratified by the United States Senate. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who remains in power with a fresh vote of confidence from the people and a tremendous working majority in the Canadian Parliament, would have prestige enough to negotiate and ratify a treaty on behalf of Canada; but he will not give himself much concern about things that lie in the realm of the improbable. When the men of Massachusetts, Michigan, and Minnesota who believe in reciprocity with Canada find themselves sufficiently supported by the men of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, and Iowa, it is not presumptuous to say that Sir Wilfrid will manifest more interest. In short, when it appears that our people have enough discernment to see the great desirability on many accounts of entering upon a period of liberal trade relations with the Dominion of Canada, there will be no lack of the necessary intelligence and the desired cordiality on the northern side of the line,—unless, indeed, our clear-visioned Canadian neighbors should have become so disgusted with American tariff stupidity as to have thrown themselves beyond recall into the unnatural and less advantageous scheme of a British imperial tariff union.

*The Hay-Bond Treaty.*

Fortunately, there is a prospect that the long-pending but unratified treaty of commercial reciprocity between the United States and Newfoundland may now be modified in ways that will improve it rather than injure it, and that will at the same time remove the objections of the New England fishing interest that have hitherto opposed the treaty. The forests of Newfoundland are adapted to the pulp business on a vast scale, and it is hoped that this so-called Hay-Bond treaty may let Newfoundland wood-pulp come into the United States on very easy terms. The general trade of Newfoundland under this treaty ought to be with the United States, and the New England Senators should see that the treaty is made operative at the earliest possible moment. It has been a good while since Mr. Blaine and Sir Robert Bond negotiated the treaty that the British Government refused to sanction; and now that Sir Robert Bond is again premier of Newfoundland, with the British objections withdrawn and the Yankee fishermen placated, the fitting moment has come for the revival and ratification of the Newfoundland project.

*Justice to Philippine Trade.*

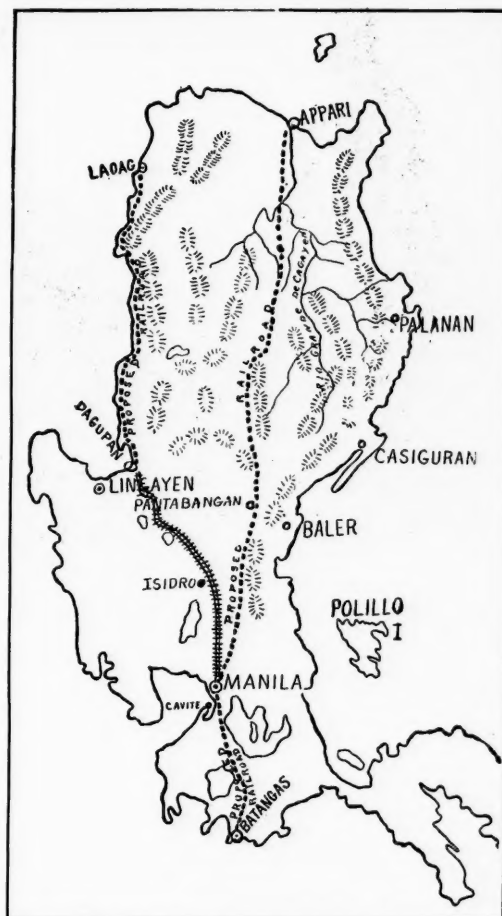
Another tariff modification that ought to be made without delay is contained in the proposal to give the Philippines the commercial treatment that they may justly claim as a dependency of this country. Noth-



ing stands in the way except the selfish and greedy opposition of our American sugar monopoly and our heavily taxed but well protected tobacco interests. It certainly ought to be our policy at the earliest possible moment to establish entire freedom of trade between the United States and the Philippine Islands. At present, however, it is thought well to retain certain duties on American products entering the Philippines for the sake of revenue, and it is asked, on the other hand, that the tariff on the Philippine staples entering the United States should be reduced to 25 per cent. of the Dingley schedules. There will be no disposition at present to abrogate the policy under which the government of the United States has been fostering the beet-sugar industry at home. This remark should be qualified, however, by the statement that the only thing that can endanger the further adequate protection of the beet-sugar interests will be their own behavior. Their clamor against a decent and honorable treatment of Cuba was disgusting, not less for its greediness than for its stupidity. The reciprocity treaty with Cuba,—so advantageous to the general commercial interests of the United States, and so desirable from every public standpoint,—never for a moment endangered the beet-sugar interests of this country to the extent of a single penny. Now, when we are on the point of doing justice in a broad way to the commercial interests of our own Philippine Islands, we are again met with the stubborn opposition of the sugar trust, which proposes to "hold up" the United States Government in the out-working of its Philippine policy.

*The Sugar Trust Dictating Again.*

Through a bond guaranty, our government is about to promote the construction of nearly a thousand miles of railways in the Philippines; and with the opening of our markets to the products of the islands there will come about a period of agricultural and commercial development that is needed above all things to justify our régime in the archipelago and to furnish a basis and a fixed standpoint for the future growth of our larger Oriental interests. At present prices, the sugar trust is making enormous profits on its investments in Western beet-sugar mills, and the country needs to be informed that there is no danger whatever that the favorable admission of sugar from the Philippine Islands will retard the triumphant progress in western America of the saccharine beet-root. Even if it could be figured out, as it cannot, that the admission of Philippine sugar could hurt our sugar interests, it would be easy enough to show that the growth



MAP TO SHOW THE NEW RAILROAD LINES PROJECTED FOR THE ISLAND OF LUZON.

of Philippine prosperity would help American cotton-growers far more than it could injure American sugar manufacturers. The methods used meanwhile to prevent Congress from acting upon the recommendations of President Roosevelt, Secretary Taft, and the Philippine Commission only serve to call the attention of the American people to the dictatorial spirit of the sugar trust. We had a duty to perform toward Cuba that involved national good faith, and we have even a higher duty to perform toward the Philippine Islands. The American sugar trust, meanwhile, would do well to abate its political activities. Doubtless, in due time, it will endeavor to control the Philippine sugar product, also. For it knows how to adapt itself to changed conditions, as it has shown at several memorable junctures.



UNCLE JOE IN NO HURRY.

Tariff-revision not greatly disturbing the Speaker of the House.—From the *Evening Mail* (New York).

Will the  
Tariff Be  
Revised?

In the more general discussion of the tariff question, and of national policy as respects commercial and economic questions, the country is already realizing great benefit from the essentially non-partisan vote of confidence accorded to President Roosevelt in November. Both in the press and at Washington, important questions have been dealt with in these past weeks on a higher plane of frankness, fairness, and moderation than at any time for a generation. The President has been endeavoring to get at the sentiment of Congress and the country regarding the revision of the Dingley tariff schedules. He finds all the Republican leaders of both houses ready to give him the benefit of their views with entire courtesy and frankness, even where they differ wholly from the opinions that the President is supposed to entertain. Speaker Cannon, for example, does not want to reopen the tariff question this winter, opposes the calling of an extra session of the new Congress, whether in the spring, the summer, or the fall, and would let the subject lie over until the regular session, next December. Congressmen naturally dislike very much to be put to the expense and trouble of coming to Washington for an extra session, and it has been easy enough for the so-called "stand-patters" to make a strong show against treating the tariff question as if there was any urgency about it. In so far, however, as we can gauge public

opinion regardless of parties, there is a growing belief that the Republican party ought very promptly to find a way to subject all the leading tariff schedules to a severely critical examination and analysis, in order to see just how they bear upon the present state of industry and trade. The public mind is not at all ruffled or agitated over the tariff question, but holds judgment in suspense and is desirous to know what are the unbiased facts. A great deal might be done at once by the statistical experts under the direction of the Department of Commerce in the way of collecting up-to-date facts showing relative cost of production as now bearing upon our imports and exports. It would also be possible to show to some extent the relation of monopoly to tariffs and prices,—as, for example, in the case of an industry like tin plate. If Speaker Cannon's views regarding the tariff should prevail, the country must expect to see a Democratic House of Representatives elected next year. The Senate would still be Republican, and no tariff legislation could then be enacted; but a period of tariff agitation would have been entered upon, with no benefit to the country's prosperity.

The Fight Over  
Railroad  
Control.

Meanwhile, the President is much more insistent upon legislation for the strengthening of government control over railroads and interstate commerce than upon tariff legislation. The wisacres have bobbed up solemnly to tell us that this is a subject of vast and unknowable difficulties, and that to proceed promptly to strengthen the Interstate Commerce Act would be disastrous. All of which is rather silly, in view of the many years of experience and study and discussion that this subject has received. No one supposes that the legislation asked for by the President in his message will remain forever unalterable, like the laws of the Medes and Persians. The deliberate processes of future years may, indeed, bring to full fruition some one of the half-dozen pretentious schemes now proposed for the creation of interstate-commerce courts,—all of them, by the way, proposed for the sake of prolonging the talk and preventing the simple, obvious, and direct legislation asked for by the President. The railway presidents have gravitated to Washington and have talked out in meeting with more frankness than at any previous time; and this is to be commended. Very few of them have heretofore really accepted the doctrine that the great highways of traffic in this country are public rather than private institutions, to be managed chiefly for the public benefit. They are now making a great many admissions of a significant sort that the public will not fail to treasure up.

*Confessions  
of the  
"Magnates."*

They are willing to let it be known, for example, that the practice of rebating was a monstrous evil; only, they assure us, they have at last, and very recently, so perfectly succeeded by their own efforts in ridding themselves of these pernicious habits that they feel quite sure they can stay reformed without any further attention from the Government or the public. Some of them, however, do not feel quite so sure, and admit that they are afraid that they may be led again into temptation and fall from grace through the cajolings of the trusts and powerful shipping corporations. The simple fact is that American railroading has long been full of the practice of favoritism and discrimination against the ordinary shipper. What with rebates, paid in all kinds of hidden and roundabout ways to favored concerns in which railroad men have themselves too frequently been side-partners, and what with the exactions of private-car lines and forty kinds of subsidiary corporations for private benefit and against public interest, American railroad administration has been permeated with rottenness and corruption. It is encouraging that the railway magnates should go to Washington and confess that they have been great sinners in the past. But it is scarcely becoming that they should offer quite so active a hand as they have been extending for the shaping of the legislation so urgently needed to protect the public against their confessed shortcomings.

*"Vested  
Interests,"  
and the  
New Era.*

A great part of the harm has been done beyond all remedy. Vested interests in railroad property are far greater in magnitude than they could ever have become if there had been proper public control and regulation in the past. It will probably take a hundred years of statesmanlike dealing with the railroad problem to recover for the people through processes of taxation and rate-regulation those immense values that the railroad syndicates have absorbed in the absence of laws that could prevent their capitalizing for their own benefit the growth and prosperity of the country. The fault does not lie so much with the men who have seized the opportunity to make themselves multi-millionaires through the manipulation of the nation's highways, as with the lax public opinion and the ignorant and faithless statesmanship that have made possible the careers of these glorified highwaymen. But all this lies mainly in the past, and need not be taken as intended personally either for the statesmen who are on deck to-day or for the interesting and plausible gentlemen who, in so dwindling a number, direct the affairs and assume to control

the destinies of our immense railway system. Undoubtedly, the period of rate-cutting and unbridled competition among railroads, together with the period of rebates and discriminations, does not belong to the new order of things. Statesmen and railroad men alike must adapt themselves to the new period of amalgamation, harmony, publicity, scientific methods, open and regular rates, and modern standard service for the public. This new and better era makes its advent chiefly through the natural evolution of economic forces. It can be aided and supported, however, by legislation and public oversight.

*What Should  
Be Done  
Now.*

As matters now stand, the Interstate Commerce Commission may declare a rate to be unreasonable, subject to the final action of the United States courts. This method, in times past, has meant so much expense and delay for aggrieved shippers that it has given the railroads undue advantage. It is now proposed that the Interstate Commerce Commission, when after a due hearing accorded to both sides it finds a rate to be unreasonable, may substitute what it regards as a reasonable rate. This rate will go into immediate effect, either party having the right of appeal to the courts. The assumption that the Interstate Commerce Commission, in such cases, will always be on the side of the complaining shipper is naive and amusing. It is entirely proper to assume that the Interstate Commerce Commission will act impartially and in good faith. If its findings do not suit the railroads, they have always at their command a vast supply of experienced and ingenious legal counsel, and will lose no time in getting their case into the courts. To enact something of this kind at the present session will be entirely feasible; and it will still be possible for the next Congress to create interstate-commerce courts or otherwise to legislate for the better regulation of the railroads.

*Railroad  
Prosperity.*

It is to be noted that the warnings of the railway interests against proposed legislation are not seriously taken by the investing public. Their stocks and bonds have been buoyant in the market, and their prosperity and brilliant outlook form the chief topic of agreement in the financial centers of the world. This booming condition of American railway property is found affecting all the leading systems, whether Eastern, Southern, Western, or Transcontinental. The stock of the condemned Northern Securities Company has been steadily advancing in the period of delay pending the litigation over the method of distributing its assets; and it was selling last month

at about 145. The stocks of the Union Pacific, and, indeed, the securities of all the lines belonging to the Harriman system, were moving steadily upward. There were many signs of a closer harmony among the leaders of the railway world than at any previous time, along the wise and modern lines for which the name of Mr. A. J. Cassatt, head of the Pennsylvania system, stands preëminent. The present outlook is that the railway men will come to so good an understanding among themselves that they can afford to join hands with the Government and with the public against the exactions of the trusts.

*These Reforms Are Wanted.* In some respects, without doubt, the tariff has aided the trust movement; but where the tariff has built up one great corporation of monopolistic tendency, railroad favors have built up twenty. The lines of needed reform are now clear and plain. The railroads, no longer subject to the risks of severe competition, can be held to fair, open, impartial, standard rates and be compelled to protect the lives of passengers and brakemen. They can be made to give up absolutely the practice of paying rebates. They can be required to relieve the shippers of the country from the tyranny of the refrigerator-car companies and the other so-called "private lines." They can be induced to protect themselves and the traveling public against the nuisance of private palace cars, which disturb the regular operation of trains and infest the public highways, to the detriment of legitimate business. And in various other respects they can be compelled to correct corrupt practices and recognized abuses. Henceforth, the science of railroading is going to be something very different from what it used to be when manipulating elections, lobbying at State capitols, rate-cutting, secret rebating, and piracy in general, together with the ability to "work" the stock market, were the recognized functions of a railroad man. Railroading has now become a legitimate business that looks to the highest kind of qualifications for its best rewards. The railway system that serves its territory best will henceforth thrive most steadily and safely.

*Building up the Country.* It is now many years since Mr. James J. Hill, who built the Great Northern Railroad without any land grants or subsidies, pinned his faith to the agricultural development of the Northwest as the guaranty of success. And the reason for Northern Securities at 145 is to be found inherently, not in any mysteries of Wall Street finance, but in the fine progress of the regions that are served by the Great Northern and Northern Pacific systems.

When railroads develop the country and serve it well, everybody is willing to have legitimate railway capital earn good dividends. Mr. Hill a great many years ago introduced improved breeds of cattle among the farmers along his lines, and concerned himself about the kinds of wheat that could best be grown. Our readers have been fully informed of the great movement in Iowa last spring, under the leadership of Professor Holden, of the State Agricultural College, for the careful selection of the corn used for seed. So successful was this work that Governor Cummins remarked the other day that it had added five dollars an acre to the value of all the land in the State.

*Corn and Wheat "Gospel Trains."* It is to be noted that it was the Rock Island Railroad Company that first sent Professor Holden over its lines with his "seed-corn special," enabling the missionaries of the new agricultural gospel to instruct the eager farmers at scores of railway stations. The Burlington road followed the same plan, and last season's corn crop, the most valuable one ever produced in Iowa, was enlarged to the extent of millions of dollars by the means of simple lessons to show the difference between good seed and bad. And in this benefit the railroads are having their very handsome share. Following this enlightened policy, the Chicago & Northwestern Railway, in the middle of last month, started a "seed-wheat gospel train" to run along that company's extensive lines in South Dakota. It will be remembered that last season's spring-wheat crop was a very disappointing one, and that it was even more inferior in quality than in quantity. It was much to be feared, therefore, that the farmers would plant inferior seed this spring, with the result of another crop far below what might be expected from seed of superior quality. The railroads are, accordingly, preparing themselves, with the aid of the elevator companies, to purchase and distribute at cost among the farmers the kind of seed that will be likely to produce the best results. It is reported that other railroads besides the Chicago & Northwestern will in like fashion help the farmers along their lines to obtain good seeds. This is not a work of philanthropy, but of sound business sense. In earlier days, the farmers of the Northwest felt that prosperity for them was impossible because the railroads and elevator companies always made rates on the principle of charging as much as the traffic would bear. Hence, there was bitter hatred against the railroad companies, and with just cause, for the farmers were deliberately robbed. But in a more enlightened age of railway management it



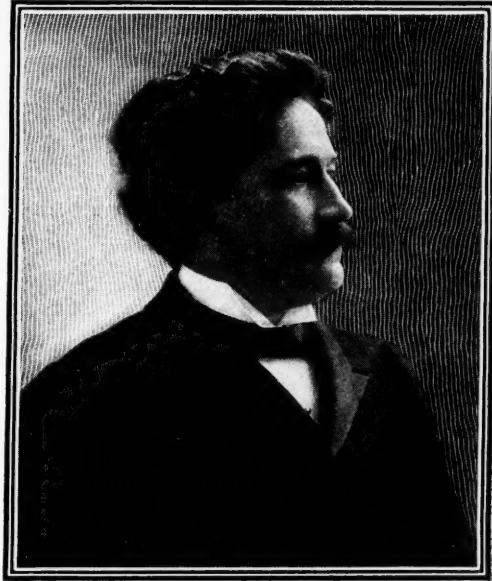
becomes clear that the best success of the roads lies in treating the farmers with the utmost fairness and liberality. And so the object of the modern railroad man is to build up a rich, mature, populous, and contented country all along his lines.

**Abundant  
Cotton and  
the World's  
Markets.**

The conditions affecting the cotton crop are of as much importance to the railways of the South and the Southwest as is the success of the wheat and corn crops to the railroads serving the middle and northern belts of the Mississippi Valley and the West. A year ago, the South was rejoicing in the abundance of ready money that came from abnormally high prices for cotton. Last month the one absorbing theme of discussion throughout the South was the present low price of cotton and the need of limiting the size of the crop. Serious efforts were made to bring about an agreement for the burning of a large percentage of the cotton supply now on hand. Certainly, the South is justified in wishing profitable prices and steady markets; but in the long run there will be far greater profit to be derived from abundant crops at moderate prices than from small crops and scarcity values. Every effort must be made to extend the market for American cotton and to perfect methods of cultivation and means for cheap transportation. These are problems in the solution of which many agencies can unite; and progressive railroad men may well take the leading part. There are hundreds of millions of people in the world who would be better off for having the products of the American cotton-field, and it would be much better to try to get at those people than to burn the crop. Senator McLaurin, of South Carolina, and other Southern statesmen were strongly urging this view last month, with an interesting array of facts and figures. They also upheld the work of the Government in its remarkable cotton-crop reports,—a work very erroneously assailed in the South.

**End of the  
Fall River  
Strike.**

Incidentally it may be noted that the termination of the long strike at Fall River will add appreciably to the present demand for cotton. The strike began on the 25th of July last, and was brought to an end largely through the mediation of Governor Douglas, of Massachusetts, on January 18. About twenty-five thousand operatives had lost half a year's wages, and seventy-two textile mills had been closed. The strike had been precipitated by a 12½ per cent. reduction in wages. The strikers returned to work accepting the reduction on an understanding that



SENATOR M'LAURIN, OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

they will receive some slight increase later on, if an independent examination of the books of the mill companies shows certain percentages of profit. Few people throughout the country realize the pathetic suffering, among many thousands of working people, caused by this unfortunate strike.

**The Career  
of Mr.  
Baldwin.**

What a commanding position for usefulness a high railway official may hold in our present American life is illustrated by the career of the late William H. Baldwin, Jr., president of the Long Island Railroad system and of many affiliated corporations, who died on January 3. Mr. Baldwin was not quite forty-two years old, and he had not inherited his position in the world of business and transportation, but had come into it through his own merits and efforts. Graduating from Harvard in 1885, Mr. Charles Francis Adams gave him an opportunity to show his worth in the Union Pacific system. After Mr. Adams retired from the Union Pacific, his young protégé successively filled high positions in different Western railway systems until called to a vice-presidency of the Southern. At thirty, or thereabouts, he stood recognized as one of the most successful practical railway men of his time. Thus, on the death of President Austin Corbin, his services were desired at New York, and in 1896 he came to the metropolis to develop the great suburban transportation system of Long

Island, to help solve the transit problems of the Greater New York, and to take his place at once as an indispensable man in multiform civic activities for the material, social, and moral advancement of America's chief city. While in the South he had studied the negro problem, and had come to believe profoundly in the value of Booker Washington's work at Tuskegee. His activities on behalf of Southern education made him prominent in the movement that created the Southern Education Board, and he took the initiative in the subsequent forming of the General Education Board, of which he was chairman. Useful as he was in almost numberless directions, his foremost place among the founders of the General Education Board will probably prove to have been the philanthropic work that will best preserve his personal memory and fame. If he had lived, all classes of his fellow-citizens would have compelled him some day to serve as mayor of New York. He was the soul of chivalry, of honor, and of moral courage. No man of his generation was more passionately devoted to the welfare of his fellow-men. He was absolutely trusted by his business associates, and at the same time had the unlimited confidence of workmen wherever he came into relations with them. He was able to hold and to act upon the most perfect conception of the public duties and responsibilities of railway corporations, without lessening the value of his services to the men who owned the stock of the road administered by him. Young men of ambition in railway administration and corporate business life should study deeply the career of William H. Baldwin, Jr., and try to find for themselves the secret of that rare success in life which has made thousands of men in all parts of this great land eager to pay some sort of tribute to the affection and esteem in which they hold his memory. An excellent picture of Mr. Baldwin is given as the frontispiece of this number of the REVIEW.

*Mr. Garfield's Report.*

It is not alone the members of the cabinet who are to be regarded as making up in any exclusive sense the personnel of the executive administration at Washington. The ministry in England is a very much larger body than the cabinet, and the same thing is true in working practice at Washington. Mr. James R. Garfield, Commissioner of Corporations in the new Department of Commerce, holds one of the most important executive posts in the service of the Government. President Roosevelt counts upon him as a very effective member of the administration. Mr. Garfield's first annual report has fully justified the creation of the Bureau of Corporations. Mr.



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HON. JAMES R. GARFIELD.

(Commissioner of Corporations.)

Garfield has courage, sincerity, and fair-mindedness in a high degree. After a thorough discussion of the development of corporations and the means by which they may be regulated in the public interest, Mr. Garfield suggests with apparent approval a plan requiring all corporations engaged in interstate commerce to obtain a federal license. The idea is not a crude one, and has much to commend it. It is worthy of the mature consideration of Congress and the country.

*Mr. Bristow's Retirement.*

Another public servant at Washington, who has been a very responsible and effective member of the administration, is Mr. Bristow, for a number of years Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General, who retired from that office last month and was immediately appointed by the President a special commissioner to examine into the management of the Panama Railroad, which the Government has acquired in connection with its canal right-of-way. Mr. Bristow has been tireless in official duty, and the country will not forget his protracted labor for the detection and punishment of graft and fraud in the Post-office Department. He will deserve well in future at the hands of his fellow-citizens in Kansas.



Chief Engineer Wallace. United States Minister Barrett. Engineer Dauchey. Mr. Arango.

ENGINEER WALLACE AND MINISTER BARRETT IN CULEBRA CUT.  
(As photographed a month ago.)

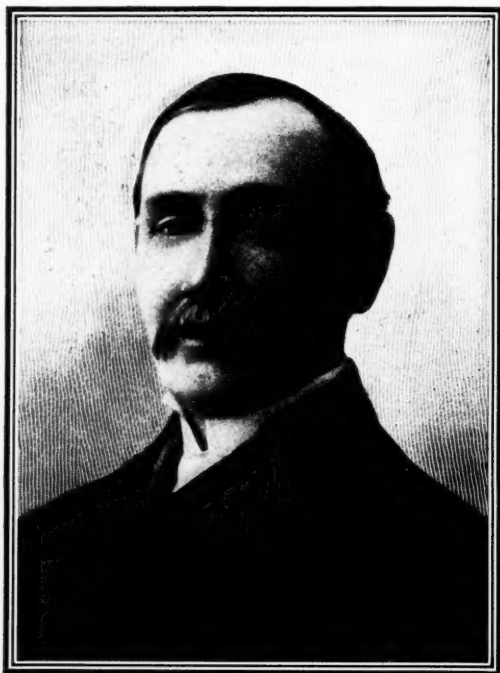
*Mr. Barrett  
on Conditions  
at Panama.*

Our readers will find Minister Barrett's article in this number of the REVIEW on the actual conditions at Panama the most instructive that has been presented in any quarter. It is probable that there will be legislation to make more effective the President's direction of the work of digging the canal. Mr. Wallace, as the constructing engineer and executive head, should be as little hampered as possible in carrying on the practical business. The Panama Commission might well be reorganized as an expert consulting body under the direction of the War Department. It would seem as if the American minister might best represent the governmental authority of the United States over the canal zone. The country must not be impatient even if it should require some time to decide finally upon such momentous problems as are involved in the question whether or not the canal is to be cut to sea level or is to have locks. For the bearings of these problems the reader is referred to Mr. Barrett's article.

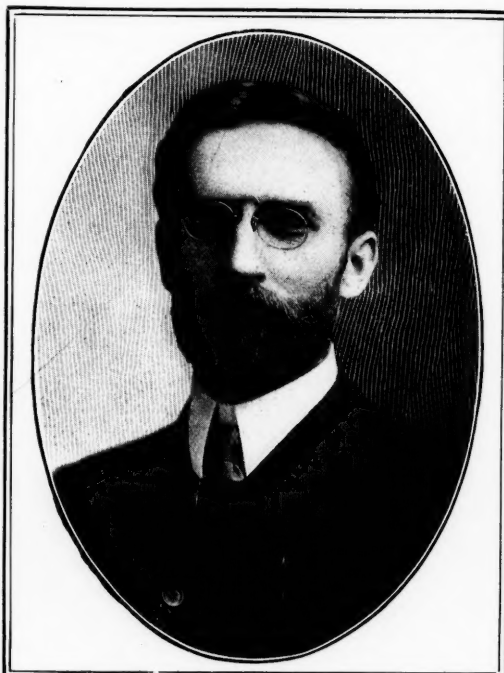
*Senatorial  
Changes.*

The reassembling of State legislatures has been attended with the election or reelection of a number of United States Senators. Thirty members of the Senate will take the oath of office on March 4, a great majority being men reelected for new

terms. There are not so many protracted Senatorial contests in the legislatures this year as usual, yet the results as a whole do not lessen the growing conviction that it would be better to elect Senators by popular vote. Beginning with New England, ex-Governor Crane is elected to succeed the late Mr. Hoar, of Massachusetts, and ex-Gov. Morgan G. Bulkeley will represent Connecticut in place of General Hawley, who retires, after a long service, on account of ill health. Senator Depew, of New York, succeeds himself, the earlier opposition having been entirely withdrawn. At Harrisburg, Pa., on January 18, Mr. Knox was chosen to succeed the late Senator Quay. On the same day, the Legislature of Indiana elected Congressman Hemenway to succeed Mr. Fairbanks, who will be Vice-President after March 4, and who resigned from the Senate on January 7. Mr. Clapp has been reelected by the Minnesota Legislature. In Nebraska, Representative Elmer J. Burkett has been promoted to the Senate from the House, succeeding Senator Dietrich. The Utah Legislature has chosen the Hon. George Sutherland to succeed Senator Kearns. Mr. Sutherland is a Gentile. Montana retires Senator Gibson, Democrat, and accords the seat to Hon. Thomas H. Carter. Senator Bard, of California, fails to secure another term, and will be



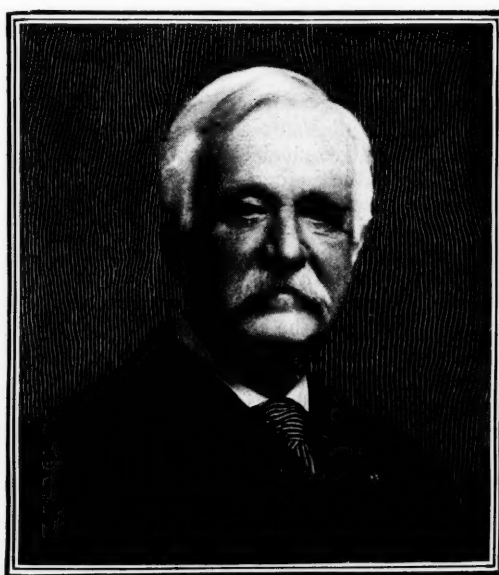
HON. JAMES A. HEMENWAY, OF INDIANA.  
(Who succeeds Mr. Fairbanks in the Senate.)



HON. GEORGE SUTHERLAND, OF UTAH.  
(Who succeeds Senator Kearns.)



HON. ELMER J. BURKETT, OF NEBRASKA.  
(Who succeeds Senator Dietrich.)

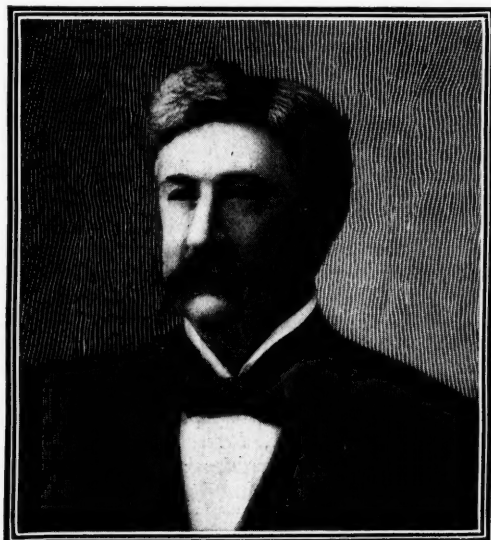


HON. MORGAN G. BULKELEY, OF CONNECTICUT.  
(Who succeeds Senator Hawley.)

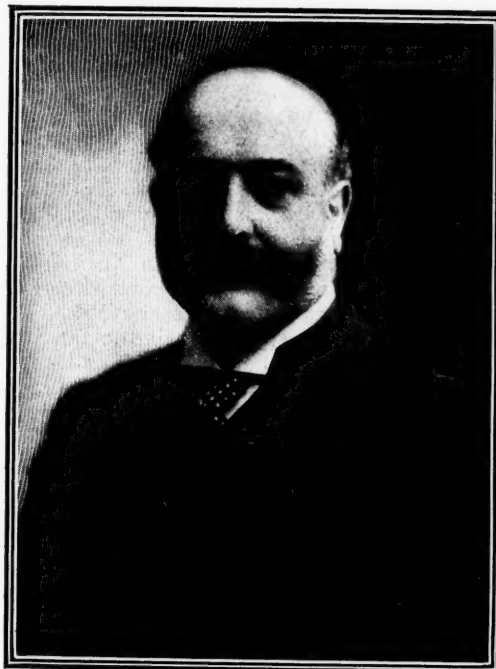


succeeded by Hon. Frank P. Flint. Mr. Flint is a prominent lawyer of Los Angeles, and will be one of the younger members of the Senate, being forty-three years old. It is stated that Senator Burkett, of Nebraska, will be the youngest man in the body. He was thirty-seven years old in December. The Wisconsin seat now held by Senator Quarles will have gone readily to Governor La Follette if he chooses to take it.

*Several Appointments.* The Hon. Vespasian Warner, of Illinois, a prominent member of Congress for ten years past, with a fine record as a soldier in the Civil War, has been chosen Pension Commissioner to succeed the Hon. Eugene F. Ware, of Kansas. Mr. Ware retires with the regret and the high esteem of the whole country, and with his keen sense of humor quite unimpaired. Mr. Warner is fully acceptable to public men of both parties. The Hon. William Williams, who has made a brief but splendid record as Immigration Commissioner at New York, also, like Mr. Ware, retires to his law practice. He is succeeded by Mr. Robert Watchorn, who has for several years been an immigration inspector. Mr. J. Hampton Moore, of Pennsylvania, has been appointed chief of the Bureau of Manufactures in the Department of Commerce and Labor. This bureau was authorized by the act creating the department, but has not until now been organized. There are to be numerous diplomatic and consular changes, the more important of which it will suffice to comment upon next month.



HON. VESPASIAN WARNER.



HON. N. V. V. FRANCHOT.

(Who will rebuild the New York canal system.)

*A State  
Note  
or Two.*

Governor Higgins, of New York, has entered upon what promises to be a notably useful and efficient administration. The most significant appointment within his power was that of commissioner of public works, in view of the prospect of speedy entrance upon the vast project of enlarging the Erie Canal. For this office he named a capable business man of western New York, Hon. N. V. V. Franchot. The opponents of the canal have secured eminent legal opinions to the effect that the canal act is unconstitutional, and this may postpone actual work. Colorado is engaged in an almost unprecedented reëxamination of the election returns. Governor Adams has been seated by agreement, as elected on the face of the returns; but it is regarded as quite possible that the contest of the retiring governor, Mr. Peabody, may yet succeed. Missouri, with Folk as governor and a Republican legislature, is keeping its eyes on the situation at the State capital, where political honesty is at a high premium. Governor Douglas, in Massachusetts, is urging bold views upon the Legislature and making an impression as a man of force and character. Pennsylvania has been discussing Governor Pennypacker's renewed attack upon the press.

*New Cabinets  
in Denmark,  
Austria, and  
France.*

There were changes in several European ministries during January. Following upon the formation of the new cabinet in Spain, by which General Azcaraga becomes prime minister (noted in this REVIEW last month), the Danish ministry, headed by J. C. Christensen, who is also minister of war and marine (the first civilian to occupy this position in Denmark), had begun with the session of the Danish Parliament. Rather more significant had been the crisis in Austria, culminating in the resignation of Dr. von Koerber, after four years as prime minister. While Dr. Koerber's fall was apparently due to the government's defeat in its application for a loan, it was ultimately due, beyond a doubt, to the Innsbruck affair and the trouble with Hungary, as pointed out in this REVIEW last month. The new premier, Baron Gautsch von Frankenthurn, was premier and minister of the interior eight years ago. The downfall of the Combes cabinet in France, which was announced on January 18, was due, not to the anti-clerical attitude of the government, as might have been supposed, but to the exceedingly unpopular system of espionage which M. Combes had instituted, and opposition to which had been manifested in the attacks on War Minister André, which forced him to resign. Starting out with a programme which called for a reduction of the military service to two years, the secularization of the schools, the income tax, and old-age pensions for workmen, the Combes government had succeeded in putting the first two into effect, and was carrying through the income-tax project when it fell.

*A Year  
of the  
War.*

One year of the far-Eastern war (closing on February 8) finds Japan virtually in possession of all the points in dispute, while Russia, with broken prestige in Asia, faces a political and economic crisis at home. While the real underlying cause of the war was the clash between Russian territorial expansion, or, as the Russians avow, their search for an ice-free port on the Pacific, and the pressure of Japan's economic and social needs, the immediate occasion was, briefly, the refusal of Russia to give definite, adequate assurances that her protectorate in the far East would not be extended to Korea. With Russia in Korea (and between Russian intrigue and Korean incompetency the Hermit Kingdom was fast being "earmarked" for the Czar), Japan felt that her national existence would be endangered. Besides, the occupation by the Russians of Port Arthur, from which Japan had been ousted, after her war with China,

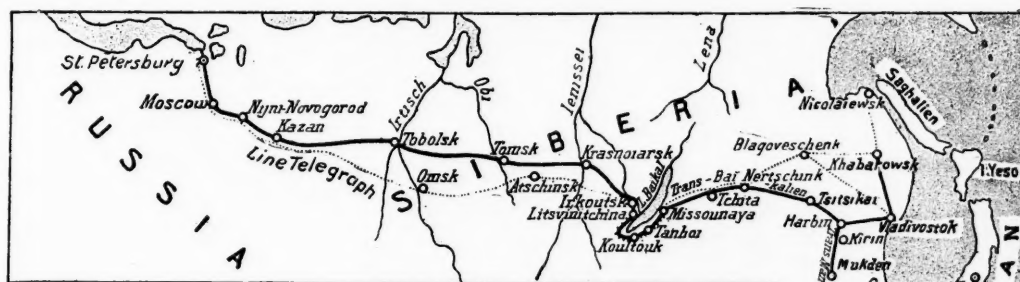
by coalition of the European powers, was regarded in Japan as an insult to the national pride. Beginning immediately after the Chino-Japanese War, Russia established a practical occupation of Manchuria; and her designs were furthered by the Boxer uprising in 1900.

*Japan  
Moves  
Swiftly.*

While she disclaimed any intention of formally annexing Manchuria, there were so many signs of permanent control by Russia in that province that Japan had taken alarm. Unfulfilled promises to evacuate Manchuria (Russia kept claiming that her interests demanded that she keep order in the province), valuable concessions along the Korean side of the Yalu River to Russian subjects, and the large increase in Russia's far-Eastern naval and military strength had decided Japan to put an end to the long and fruitless diplomatic "fencing match." Russia's final reply to the Japanese note, sent to Tokio on February 6, 1904, had been so unsatisfactory that the ministers of both countries were at once given their passports, and two days later, on the night of February 8, the Russian fleet in Port Arthur harbor was attacked and disabled by the Japanese admiral, Togo, and two Russian cruisers, the *Variag* and the *Koriets*, caught in the harbor of Chelmulpho, Korea, were destroyed. Russia's contention that Japan's attack in advance of a declaration of war (the Russian declaration was made on February 10, and the Japanese a day later) was treacherous is not supported by the history of the nations of the world, including that of Russia herself. Besides, as the Japanese counterclaim shows, the day before Admiral Togo's attack a strong hostile Russian force crossed the Yalu River into Korea, thus invading the disputed territory, and really putting upon Russia the responsibility for beginning hostilities.

*Russia  
Unprepared  
for War.*

While Japan had been preparing for this war for years, it is now generally admitted, even by the Russians themselves, that the Czar's government did not expect a conflict, and, in any case, was unprepared for it when it came. Admiral Alexeiev, the Russian viceroy of the far East, believed Japan to be "only bluffing." Consequently, Russia's naval strength in Manchuria, which was supposed to be superior to Japan's, was poorly equipped and unfortunately placed. Seven battleships (the *Retvizan*, *Peresviet*, *Czarevitch*, *Sevastopol*, *Pobieda*, *Petropavlovsk*, and *Poltava*) and six cruisers (the *Diana*, *Askold*, *Pallada*, *Novik*, *Bayan*, and *Boyarin*), besides quite a force of torpedo boats, destroyers, and other vessels of war, were in the harbor of Port Arthur. Two



MAP SHOWING THE "LINES OF REVICTUALMENT" OF THE TWO ARMIES IN MANCHURIA.

cruisers (the *Variag* and the *Koriety*) had been sent to Chelmulpho, and four cruisers (the best in the Russian navy, the splendid *Rurik*, *Rossia*, *Gromoboi*, and *Bogatyr*) were practically ice-bound at Valdivostok. The Russian army in Manchuria was estimated on paper to number between 300,000 to 400,000 men. On the best of authority, it is now known to have been less than 50,000, and the Siberian Railway, owing to its great length and faulty construction, and the official corruption in Russia, had proved inadequate to carry the needed troops. The thoroughness of Japan's preparation, on the other hand, the knowledge and capacity of her general staff, and the courage, endurance, and resources of her armies in the field and her navies on the seas, have been the wonder and admiration of the world.

*Plans  
of the  
Belligerents.*

The Japanese campaign had been planned—and has actually been carried out—along very nearly the same general lines as the Japanese campaign against the Chinese in 1894-95. The armies of the Mikado, it was planned, were to occupy Korea; isolate, invest, and capture Port Arthur; invade, by three armies, maritime Manchuria, and converge upon the Russian army near Mukden, with the intention of destroying it. Meanwhile, the Japanese fleet was to blockade Port Arthur, threaten Vladivostok, and keep the seas open for the transportation of troops and supplies. Details of the general plan were to cut the Siberian Railroad, in the Russian rear, and destroy the Port Arthur and Vladivostok sections of Russia's far-Eastern fleet, the latter, of course, a necessary part of the general plan. Russia, being caught unprepared, had no offensive campaign planned, nor has the first year of the contest apparently developed any coherent campaign of Russian defense. In its larger lines, her conception had been—first, to send over the railroad to the far East armies large enough to aggregate a sufficient military strength to force back the Japanese invaders; second, to maintain the de-

fense of Port Arthur until it could be relieved, either by General Kuropatkin advancing from the landward side or by the Baltic fleet forcing Admiral Togo to raise the blockade; third, to interfere with and if possible cripple Japanese sea communications by raids of the Vladivostok squadron.

*The Naval  
Campaign  
Against  
Port Arthur.*

The main interest in the war has without a doubt centered about the siege of Port Arthur, which lasted from June to January and was marked with terrible losses and great gallantry on the part of both besieger and besieged. As a result of the first attack on the Russian fleet in the harbor, the *Retvizan*, *Czarevitch*, and *Pallada* were torpedoed. Admiral Togo began the blockade, and made a number of unsuccessful attempts to close the entrance to the harbor by sinking steamers. The Russians, meanwhile, had lost several vessels by their own mines, and Admiral Stark, the Russian naval commander at Port Arthur, had been succeeded by Admiral Makaroff, one of Russia's ablest and most famous sailors. Admiral Skrydlov, meanwhile, had been sent to the squadron at Vladivostok. After unsuccessfully bombarding that port (May 6), Admiral Togo established his base on one of the Elliot Islands and settled down to the blockade of Port Arthur. Admiral Makaroff, having brought his fleet to its highest possible efficiency, made a sortie (April 13). In the engagement which followed, his flagship, the battleship *Petropavlovsk*, struck a mine and sank, carrying down her admiral and six hundred men, including the artist Verezhagin. The Russians made no further naval effort until June 22, when Admiral Witthoef, successor to Makaroff, again attempted to escape, but was driven back with heavy losses. On August 10, the Russian fleet attempted to effect a

junction with the Vladivostok squadron, but were defeated and dispersed, Admiral Witthoeft being killed, and the *Askold* and *Czarevitch* being compelled to seek neutral ports and dismantle. The *Novik* fled to Saghalien, where it was destroyed. Admiral Wirenius (or Viren), who succeeded Witthoeft, remained under cover of the guns of the forts. On November 29 and 30, the Japanese army succeeded in capturing the position known as 203-Metre Hill, which commands the harbor. From this eminence, early in December, their guns destroyed what was left of the Russian Port Arthur fleet. Japan's naval losses consisted of the sinking of the battleship *Hatsuse* (May 15) by a mine; the loss of the cruiser *Nisshin*, and later the losses of the battleship *Yashima* and the cruisers *Saiyca* and *Miyako*—all by mines.

*The Siege  
of  
Port Arthur.*

The land operations against Port Arthur divided themselves into two sections,—(1) the landing and preliminary battles by General Oku, and (2) the regular approach and siege by General Nogi. On May 5, Oku's army landed at various points on the Kwan-Tung Peninsula, moved westward to the railroad, and (May 26) fought and won the important and bloody battle of Nanshan Hill, which gave it the key to the outer defenses of Port Arthur. On May 30, Oku occupied Dalny, at which port, in the first part of June, General Nogi's army for the investment of Port Arthur was landed. General Kuropatkin's attempt to relieve the fortress by sending a force under General Stachelberg southward was frustrated by Oku, who defeated Stachelberg in a severe battle at Vafangow (or Telissu) on June 15. Meanwhile, Nogi had begun the regular siege of Port Arthur. The main points of the outer chain of defenses were taken by the Japanese on August 7. Then followed months of mining and countermining; several great Japanese assaults were defeated with tremendous losses. With the capture of Uihling Mountain and 203-Metre Hill came the beginning of the end, and on January 1 Port Arthur capitulated. The Russian defense had been conducted by General Stoessel, with, it is now learned, about 25,000 soldiers, besides sailors from the warships. The Russians justify Stoessel's long defense because it detained Nogi's 60,000 to 70,000 men, preventing their reënforcing Oyama.

*Port  
Arthur  
Surrenders.*

With the signing of the conditions of capitulation, on New Year's Day, the end came to Port Arthur's siege of six months,—a siege marked by continuous and desperate fighting, and by the employment

on both sides of the most ingenious methods of modern military engineering. While the official figures are not all obtainable, it has been estimated that the Russian loss, with Port Arthur, was 50,000 lives and close to \$300,000,000. The price paid by the Japanese included more than 50,000 lives, and about \$25,000,000. By the surrender, General Nogi received 50 permanent forts, 546 large guns, 4 battleships, and 2 cruisers (it is hoped and believed by the Japanese that they can fully restore that number of the sunken Russian vessels), besides 14 gunboats and destroyers, and a number of other vessels, and, finally, a large quantity of military stores, including shells, powder, and ammunition, and 2,000 horses. By the formal surrender of Port Arthur, Japan makes good her title to Dalny and the railroad from Port Arthur to Liao-Yang, besides the immense increase in prestige and the great sentimental value of having won the fortress.

*Conditions  
and  
Losses.*

General Stoessel's defense had been long and brave. Whether he himself came to the determination to surrender, or whether, as is reported, it was only upon the urgent representations of his subordinate officers, is not exactly known. After the ceremonies of capitulation had been concluded, and General Stoessel accorded all the honors of war by special direction of the Emperor of Japan for his gallant defense, the Russian commissioned officers were permitted to return to Russia on parole, retaining their side-arms. The soldiers and non-commissioned officers who refused parole—numbering some 48,000, including eight generals, four admirals, and fifty-seven colonels—had been taken to Japan as prisoners of war. General Fock, and several others of the commanders, had refused to give their parole not to take further part in the war, and had been transferred, as prisoners, to Japan. General Stoessel reported terrible suffering and losses, due principally to the ravages of the scurvy (there were 14,000 sick in the hospitals) and the destruction by the Japanese eleven-inch shells. Of ten generals, two, including Kondrachenko, the famous engineer, were killed, and four others, including Stoessel himself, seriously wounded.

*The Japanese  
Take  
Possession.*

The meeting of Generals Nogi and Stoessel was courteous, even cordial, the Japanese general complimenting Stoessel on his brave defense and the Russian expressing his appreciation of Japanese courtesy, which included immediate and adequate care of the Russian sick and wounded. On January 17, General Stoessel, with his wife and daughter,





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GENERAL BARON NOGI AND HIS OFFICERS AFTER LUNCH AT THE JAPANESE HEAD-QUARTERS BEFORE PORT ARTHUR. A SIX-INCH RUSSIAN SHELL DECORATES THE TABLE.

and a number of other Russian officers, left Nagasaki for Europe. Upon formally entering the city, the Japanese found its means of defense much greater and more efficient than had been supposed. The town itself had suffered but little from the bombardment. Evidences of insubordination and carousing on the part of the troops were frequent, and much liquor had been consumed. It is announced from Tokio that a great number of Chinese coolies will be put immediately at work fortifying Port Arthur. The Japanese are confident that they can put the defensive works into better condition than ever, with the Russian defects eliminated, long before the Russians can besiege it—if they ever do so.

*Japan Invades  
Korea and  
Manchuria.*

The story of the land campaign in Manchuria is one of an almost unchecked Japanese advance and of a brilliantly executed Russian retreat. Japanese troops began to be moved into Korea on February 18. On the last day of that month they

had occupied Ping-Yang. Two months more sufficed for the complete occupation of Korea and the march of the first Japanese army, under General Kuroki, to the Yalu River, which cuts off the peninsula from Manchuria. On the north bank of the Yalu, the Russian general, Zassulitch, occupied naturally and artificially strong positions. On May 1, by a brilliantly conceived and finely executed series of movements, Kuroki crossed the Yalu, defeated Zassulitch with considerable loss, and began the invasion of Manchuria. A few days later, he took Feng-Wang-Cheng, where the road divides to Mukden and Peking, and halted. The second army, under General Oku, having defeated the Russians at various points north of Port Arthur (Nanshan and Vangow), and the third army, under General Nodzu, landing on the Korean Gulf, had defeated the Russians at Siu-Yen, and moved to the northward, filling in the gap in the Japanese line between Kuroki and Oku. On July

20, Field Marshal Oyama, commander-in-chief of all the Japanese armies in the field, arrived at Dalny, and took immediate direction of the operations against the Russians.

*The Russians  
Begin  
Retreat.*

Dissatisfaction with the policy and inaction of Viceroy Alexeiev had led to the appointment, in March, of General Kuropatkin as commander-in-chief of the Russian forces in the far East. Kuropatkin's problem was to retard his enemy's advance until he could collect a force to match him. This side of the Russian commander's task, and how it has been even partially accomplished, is a phase of the war which, when the facts are known, will make very interesting reading. Stachelberg's attempt to relieve Port Arthur having failed, Kuropatkin drew in his lines and retreated slowly northward on Liao-Yang, a very strongly fortified city, some forty miles south of Mukden. Meanwhile, the Japanese advance had been resumed, and on June 30 Kuroki took the impor-

tant Mo Ting Pass, thirty miles south of Liao-Yang. After the capture of Kai-Ping, Oku and Nodzu effected a junction (July 15), and, nine days later, after a severe battle, Oku had rendered Tashi-Chiao untenable, the Russians retiring on Hai-Chang and losing Newchwang. In the meantime, Kuroki had repulsed an attack by the Russian general, Count Keller, at Mo Ting Pass, afterward again defeating that general east of Liao-Yang, in a battle in which Keller was killed. Kuropatkin retired from Hai-Cheng, on August 2, to An-Shan-Chan, the southern end of the strong fortifications of Liao-Yang. The heat and the rains then checked active operations for several weeks.

*The  
Battle of  
Liao-Yang.*

Emerging from the mountains, the three Japanese armies — Kuroki's, Oku's, and Nodzu's—under the supreme command of Field Marshal Oyama, and numbering some 200,000 to 220,000, met and engaged General Kuropatkin, who had about 200,000 men stationed along the semicircle of hills surrounding the strongly fortified city of Liao-Yang, in which the Russians had gathered immense quantities of supplies and munitions of war. On the morning of August 26, the great battle of Liao-Yang began. While Oku and Nodzu broke the Russian center and right at An-Shan-Chan, Kuroki turned Kuropatkin's left by crossing the Tai-tse River and taking the Russians in the rear. Kuropatkin was compelled to move back to a position at the Yentai coal mines, in the rear of Liao-Yang. The Russian retreat began in good order, but during the ten days following the first Japanese attack each side suffered tremendous losses, and Kuropatkin, failing to cut off Kuroki from the rest of the Japanese army, was obliged to evacuate Liao-Yang, the retreat beginning on September 3. At one time the peril of the Russian army was great; but the escape was finally made, and Mukden was reached in safety. The Japanese advance had been equaled in brilliancy by the Russian retreat.

*Battle  
of the  
Sha River.*

Owing to heavy rains, it was the end of the first week in October before the next noteworthy engagement on a large scale took place. With a force then estimated at about 300,000 men, and for the first time a superior force of artillery, General Kuropatkin, having inspired his troops with a proclamation, moved forward against the Japanese positions. Whether this advance was Kuropatkin's own idea, or whether it was ordered prematurely from St. Petersburg, is not positively known, but it was not a success. For a

week the armies, estimated at about equal strength, engaged in a terrific battle—one of the greatest in modern history—generally known as the battle of the Shakhe (or Sha) River. It was one long-continued test of endurance on both sides. While there was splendid work on the part of the Russians, and while at times the fighting resulted in clear gain for Kuropatkin, on the whole, the battle was a Russian repulse. On the other hand, it checked, for an indefinite interval, the Japanese advance. Heavy rains put an end to the battle on October 20. From this date until now the armies have been in winter quarters on the opposite banks of the Sha River, which they have fortified, apparently waiting until spring to resume operations on a large scale. Kuropatkin has been constantly receiving reinforcements by the railroad, and after the capitulation of Port Arthur, General Nogi's main army was dispatched northward to swell the ranks of Oyama.

*Raids of the  
Vladivostok  
Fleet.*

After the "bottling up" of the Port Arthur fleet, Russia's naval activity expressed itself in three directions,—first, the raids of the Vladivostok squadron; second, the passage of the Dardanelles by the *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg*, of her Black Sea volunteer fleet, and their challenge of the world's neutral commerce in the Red Sea; and, third, the expedition of the second Pacific squadron, generally known as the Baltic fleet, to relieve Port Arthur, with its unfortunate attack on British fishing ships in the North Sea. The Vladivostok squadron, composed of the cruisers *Rurik*, *Rossia*, *Gromoboi*, and *Bogatyr*, under command of Vice-Admiral Bezobrazoff (representing Admiral Skrydlov), succeeded in breaking through the ice of the port on April 26, and, after a cruise in Japanese waters, sank the transport *Kinshiu*, with 200 of its crew, who refused to surrender. The *Bogatyr* then went on the rocks near Vladivostok, where it has remained. The three other ships, on June 15, made another raid, and sank the transport *Hitachi*, with 900 men; the transport *Idzumi*, and wrecked the transport *Sado*, on both occasions eluding the Japanese admiral, Kamimura, who was looking for them. On July 31, they raided off the eastern coast of Japan, and outside of Tokio Bay they captured and sank Japanese and neutral vessels, causing losses to trade estimated at \$15,000,000. Among the vessels destroyed was the British steamer *Knight Commander* (a large portion of its cargo owned in the United States), and among those seized, the German steamer *Arabia*, chartered by an American company. In both of these cases, protests were

made to Russia by the American State Department. The squadron returned to Vladivostok on July 31. On August 14, Admiral Kamimura caught the Vladivostok cruisers on their way to join the Port Arthur fleet, sank the *Rurik*, and entirely disabled the *Rossia* and the *Gromoboi*.

*The Red Sea Seizures.* Early in July, the *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg*, two auxiliary cruisers of the Russian volunteer fleet in the

Black Sea, passed the Dardanelles as merchant ships, and afterward (in violation of the provisions of the treaty of Paris) mounted guns and seized merchantmen in the Red Sea, causing a storm of protest in Great Britain, and open hints of war. Representations by the governments concerned (Great Britain and Germany) led Russia, while not admitting the British contention regarding the status of the Black Sea vessels, to release the ships captured (notably the *Malacca*), and to agree (in the middle of September) to the American and British contention that the burden of proof in the case of the alleged contraband of war should be upon the captor. The *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg* were finally recalled, to be regularly commissioned as vessels of war. In accordance with this agreement, the decisions of the Vladivostok prize court, in the cases of the British steamers *Allanton* and *Calchas*, and the German-American steamer *Arabia*, were reversed by the admiralty court (the court of appeal) at St. Petersburg.

*The Baltic Fleet and England.* When the Port Arthur and Vladivostok squadrons had been disabled, Russia hastened preparations to send most of her Baltic fleet to the Pacific. After many false starts, this fleet, composed of seven battleships and four cruisers, with destroyers, torpedo boats, and transports, under command of Admiral Rozhdestvenski, sailed from Libau on October 16. During the night of October 21, while out of their course, the Russian ships fell in with a fleet of British fishing trawlers, on the Dogger Bank, in the North Sea. The Russians, according to the fishermen's reports, turned searchlights on them, and opened fire without warning, sinking a trawler, killing two men, and wounding several. The news reached Hull on October 24, and the British Government promptly sent a note of protest to Russia, demanding redress. In the meantime, the Russian commander continued his voyage to Vigo, Spain, and his home government was unable to reply to the British note further than to express regret and willingness to make reparation. The tone of the British Government was correct and moderate, but there was great excitement

throughout England, and mobilization orders were sent to the various British fleets. When the Russian admiral's reports was received, it served only to further inflame British resentment. He claimed he had been attacked by Japanese torpedo boats in the North Sea, and cited warnings in proof of his contention. The Japanese Government denied the presence of any Japanese warships in European waters.

*The North Sea Commission.*

The acceptance of Admiral Rozhdestvenski's report by the Russian Government left Great Britain the choice of three alternatives.—(1) to go to war; (2) to recede from her position; or (3) to submit the question to investigation and arbitration. Mainly through the good offices of France, the last means was agreed upon (October 28), and, in accordance with the formal agreement, an international commission, under the terms of the Hague convention, was appointed to fix the responsibility and determine the question of damages. Admiral Beaumont was chosen to represent England, and Admiral Kaznakov, Russia. Representatives from France and the United States were also provided for in the agreement, the four to choose a fifth. Admiral Fournier was appointed from France, and Admiral Davis from the United States. At the first meeting of the commission (in Paris, December 22), Admiral von Spaun, head of the Austrian navy, was elected the fifth member, Admiral Fournier being chosen president. Owing, it is reported, to age and ill health, Admiral Kaznakov retired from the commission early in January, and Vice-Admiral Dubassov was chosen to represent Russia in his stead. The first public session of the commission, at which the statements of Russia and England were read, was held on January 19. The Russian ships left Vigo early in October and proceeded in two sections on their journey to the far East, one section, under Admiral Voelkersam, going by way of the Suez Canal, and the other, consisting of the heavier battleships, under Admiral Rozhdestvenski himself, taking the longer voyage by way of the Cape of Good Hope. The third squadron of the fleet left later than the other two. By the middle of January the two main divisions had entered the Indian Ocean and joined forces. Port Arthur having fallen, and the entire Russian naval force in the far East having been destroyed, the main object of the Baltic fleet had ceased to exist, and there were reports that Admiral Rozhdestvenski had been recalled, so that later on a stronger fleet might be sent to meet the Japanese. Admiral Togo, meanwhile, had returned to Tokio, where he received great ovations.

*Secretary  
Hay's Chinese  
Note.*

Secretary Hay, to whose prompt, vigorous, and diplomatic action, backed by Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt, is due the fact that China is to-day "an administrative entity," has again recognized this government's responsibility in the international phases of the Chinese question. It will be remembered that in February of last year Secretary Hay (at the suggestion of Germany) had sent a note to all the powers signatory to the Peking settlement of 1900 asking that these nations pledge themselves to limit the area of the war, and to keep China from becoming involved, at the same time using their best endeavors to restrain both belligerents from violating Chinese interests so long as the Celestial Empire should maintain a correct attitude. A practically unanimous assent had been received to these propositions, Japan and Russia each agreeing to respect Chinese neutrality so long as the other should do so. Charges of violation of Chinese neutrality had been made against the other by each of the belligerents. Japan had claimed that Russian ships of the Port Arthur fleet had received unfair advantages in Chinese ports, and that Kuropatkin's Cossack raiders had constantly invaded the neutral zone in attempting to cut Japanese communications. Early in January, the Russian Government had issued a circular to the powers calling attention to a number of alleged violations of Chinese neutrality in favor of Japan, citing particularly the "cutting out" of the Russian torpedo boat *Ryeshitelni* in the harbor of Chefu and the alleged presence of Chinese troops with the Japanese forces. To these charges China has made a sweeping denial, and it is announced that the Japanese Government is preparing countercharges.

*Our Interest  
and Stake.*

Secretary Hay at once addressed identical instructions to the American ministers in all the countries signatory to the Peking settlement directing them to request those governments to repeat the assurances given by them last February with reference to securing from Russia and Japan a promise to respect Chinese neutrality, and to impress upon China the necessity of taking no part in the war. Just what is behind the Russian demands is not yet certain. It is true that with every serious reverse in the war the Russian court party (which gives voice to its opinions in the *Novoye Vremya*) has complained that China was violating her neutrality; but British journals are claiming that this move foreshadows the despoiling of China by Russia when the latter has been beaten by Japan. The possibility of this had been emphasized by the reported occu-

pation by a Russian force of the Chinese province of Kashgar, whose capital (with the same name) is one of the most important cities of central Asia. By the way, if those Russians who cannot understand why American sympathies, which follow American interests, should go to Japan in the war will study the figures of last year's American trade with Manchuria they will find in the figures (which are five times larger for 1904 than for 1903) an answer conclusive if not satisfactory.

*Peace  
Prospects—  
Dubassov.*

It had been assumed by many of the newspapers and some statesmen that the fall of Port Arthur, terminating, as it did, the first period of the war, would be made the occasion for overtures of peace by either or by both of the belligerents. Japan and Russia, however, had each officially declared that the capture of the famous fortress had been only an incident of the contest and would not influence either to suggest peace. In this connection, an interview with Vice-Admiral Dubassov, reported in the *Echo de Paris*, is interesting. The admiral, it will be remembered, is the successor of Admiral Kaznakov as Russian member of the North Sea Commission, and also Russian chief of naval construction. After a lengthy conference with the Czar in St. Petersburg, immediately upon his arrival at Paris Admiral Dubassov announced that Russia needed time for the reconstruction of her navy. Recognizing this condition, he went on:

However painful it may be to national self-love, I do not hesitate to say that we tend toward a not-far-off peace. We will leave the Japanese Port Arthur and the territory they now occupy in Manchuria. We will set ourselves resolutely to work to prepare a powerful, invincible navy—as this peace will be but temporary—and the next time we shall be amply prepared.

*Russia  
Beginning to  
Talk Openly.*

Ideas for which men were sent to Siberia twenty years ago are now being discussed in the most open way in the Russian press. Even the Czar's answer to the petition of the zemstvos has been commented upon with a frankness almost incredible; and in this fact of frank discussion is to be found, perhaps, the only actual accomplishment, so far, of the present liberal movement in Russia. The censorship has not legally been relaxed, but, as pointed out in one of our "Leading Articles" this month, the press ignores the censorship and talks freely, and nothing happens. Three phases of Russia's internal condition had been engaging the attention of the world. These were the Czar's reply to the zemstvo petition for reform and a representative government; the measures advocated by Minister Witte in his report on the con-



dition of the peasants, and the great industrial riots threatening revolution in St. Petersburg.

*The Czar  
to the  
Zemstvos.*

An imperial manifesto in reply to the zemstvo request for representation in the government was made on December 26. Several days preceding this, the Czar had returned certain resolutions submitted to him by several zemstvos with an indorsement that questions of state administration are of no legal concern to the zemstvos. In his manifesto, the Emperor ignores entirely the demand for a constitutional government, but announces, in the most definite and authoritative way, that the Russian Government is to remain autocratic. He pledges himself to care for the needs of the country, "distinguishing between all that is real in the interests of the Russian people and tendencies not seldom mistaken and influenced by transitory circumstances." The ukase goes on, in somewhat indefinite terms, to grant certain liberal reforms, including uniform laws for the peasantry, liberty of the press and religion, revision of laws affecting foreigners, and thorough reform of the general laws of the empire, so that "its inviolable fulfillment for all alike shall be regarded as the first duty by all the authorities and in all places, subject to us; that its non-fulfillment shall inevitably bring with it legal responsibility for every arbitrary act, and that persons who have suffered wrong by such acts shall be enabled to secure legal redress." The manifesto had been received by the reactionaries as too liberal, and by the Liberals as unsatisfactory, because, while promising great reforms, the Czar, in reaffirming autocracy and intrusting the execution of his reforms to the council of ministers and the very bureaucracy which is so detested had practically made his own declaration a dead letter.

*The Struggle  
at Court.*

So far as now known, the scheme of Minister Witte, as outlined in his report to the Czar on the condition of the peasants, provides for the full liberation of the peasant class by placing them on an equality with other classes in the empire. This is to be done by advancing money at reasonable rates by the state, instead of allowing the peasants to become the prey of money-lenders. The scheme also provides means for the transfer of peasants from one community to another, and makes larger provision for local self-government by the creation of communal administrative boards in addition to the provincial or district zemstvos. It had been repeatedly rumored that, owing to his inability to carry through the reforms, Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski had resigned, and that Minister Witte would succeed him.

*Is It  
Revolution?*

An industrial strike of vast proportions, developing into political riots which held the Russian capital in a state of siege and resulted in the killing by the military (on January 22) of 2,100 and the wounding of 5,000 of the demonstrators who had gathered before the Winter Palace to present a petition to the Czar, had almost set the entire empire ablaze. Strikes are forbidden by Russian law, but, beginning with the employees of the Neva Shipbuilding Works, in the capital, the strike had spread so that it included all of the 174 industries represented in the city, paralyzing all business, and even depriving the city of electric light. Under the leadership of an unfrocked priest named Gapon, nearly 100,000 of the strikers marched toward the Winter Palace (on January 22) with a petition to the Czar (which they were not permitted to present) for relief from intolerable laws, couched in terms of such despair as perhaps have not been used since the days of the French Revolution. The authorities were prepared, and more than 50,000 troops, drawn up in the streets and squares, received the crowds, first with a blank volley, and afterward with bullet, shell, and saber, killing more than 2,000 unarmed men, women, and children, and wounding 5,000 more. Led by two priests in sacred robes, bearing the cross, these peaceful citizens were trampled upon and massacred by Cossacks. Before the slaughter, Father Gapon addressed a letter to the Czar, informing him of the trust of the people, and calling upon him to meet the petitioners, but, he concluded, "if vacillating, you do not appear, then the moral bands between you and the people who trust in you will disappear, because innocent blood will flow between you and your people." After the massacre, the strikers intrenched themselves in the streets of Vassili Ostroff (Basil Island, north of the Neva), wrecking buildings and burning telegraph poles. Armories, arsenals, and cartridge factories were sacked. "Down with Autocracy" and "Down with the Czar" were heard in the streets. The Emperor himself, after an attempt on his life had been made with a gun of one of the saluting batteries at the ceremony of "blessing the waters" (on January 19), had disappeared from public view, and for several days his whereabouts appears to have been unknown. The revolt had not been confined to the capital, but had spread to Moscow, Odessa, and Sevastopol, and throughout the Caucasus. In spite of his liberal and reform tendencies, Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski is not looked upon as the strong man of the occasion, but Russian Liberals have been turning to ex-minister of finance, Serge Witte, whom many regard as a possible dictator of the empire.

# RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From December 21, 1904, to January 20, 1905.)

## PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 4.—Both branches reassemble after the holiday recess.... In the Senate, the Statehood bill is made the unfinished business.

January 5.—The Senate passes bills for the reorganization of the medical corps of the army, for promotion in the ordnance corps, and for better quarters for consuls.... The House tables a resolution calling on the Department of Agriculture for the facts on which its cotton forecast was based.

January 6.—The Senate, in executive session, confirms the nomination of William D. Crum, a negro, to be collector of customs at Charleston, S. C.... The House passes the fortifications appropriation bill.

January 9.—The Senate passes the omnibus claims bill; Mr. Morgan (Dem., Ala.) speaks against the Statehood bill.

January 10.—The Senate accepts certain amendments to the Statehood bill.... The House considers the currency bill and adopts amendments thereto; the articles of impeachment of Judge Swayne are presented.

January 11.—The Senate debates the Statehood bill and the question of railroad regulation.... The House adopts an amendment to the army appropriation bill providing that officers above the rank of major shall not receive the full pay of their grade when on duty with State militia.

January 12.—The Senate takes up the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill.... The House discusses the articles of impeachment of Judge Swayne.

January 13.—The Senate passes the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill.

January 14.—The House passes 459 private pension bills in 108 minutes.

January 17.—In the Senate, Mr. Mitchell (Rep., Ore.) makes a statement defending himself from the charges on which he was indicted in Oregon.... The House debates the Swayne impeachment.

January 18.—The Senate continues discussion of the Statehood bill.... The House adopts the articles of impeachment of Judge Swayne and authorizes the Speaker to appoint seven managers to conduct the prosecution before the Senate.

January 19.—In the Senate, a special message is received from President Roosevelt advocating the appointment of experts to study industrial and trade conditions abroad, with a view to benefiting American commerce.... The House considers the army appropriation bill.

January 20.—In the Senate, New Mexico's memorial against union with Arizona is presented.... The House passes the army appropriation bill, with amendment relating to the pay of retired officers holding militia assignments.

## POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

December 21.—The report of Commissioner of Corporations Garfield, recommending a federal license, or franchise, for corporations engaged in interstate

commerce, is made public.... President Roosevelt appoints a son of Gen. J. E. B. Stuart, the Confederate cavalry commander, United States marshal for eastern Virginia.

December 30.—The grand jury of the District of Columbia recommends the establishment of the whipping-post for wife-beaters and persons guilty of petit larceny.... The Colorado Supreme Court orders a sweeping investigation of the Denver election frauds.

December 31.—United States Senator John H. Mitchell and Representative Binger Hermann, of Oregon, are indicted on charges of land frauds at Portland, Ore.; President Roosevelt removes from office United States District Attorney Hall, of Oregon.... The Boston Board of Aldermen vote in favor of establishing a municipal gas plant.

January 2.—Frank W. Higgins is inaugurated governor of New York State.... The annual message of

Mayor McClellan, of New York City, recommends legislation for a municipal lighting plant, and for increasing the city's water-supply.

January 4.—Attorney-General Moody makes an argument against the "beef trust" in the United States Supreme Court.

January 6.—Governor Durbin, of Indiana, declares that voters in that State are openly bought and sold.

January 7.—By an agreement between the Colorado Legislature and Governor-elect Adams, he is to be



ADMIRAL VON SPAUN.

(Head of the Austro-Hungarian navy and fifth member of the North Sea Commission.)

seated, in return for certain concessions, and all contests are to go over until after his inauguration.

January 11.—Frank P. Flint (Rep.) is elected United States Senator in California; Senator William B. Bate (Dem.) is reelected in Tennessee; ex-Representative George Sutherland (Rep.) is elected United States Senator in Utah.

January 12.—The Colorado contest for the governorship is formally opened.

January 13.—President Roosevelt appoints Vespasian Warner, of Illinois, Commissioner of Pensions.... Joseph L. Bristow resigns as Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General and is appointed a special Panama Railroad commissioner by President Roosevelt.

January 16.—The Montana Legislature elects Thomas

H. Carter (Rep.) United States Senator; Nevada Republicans nominate George F. Nixon for United States Senator.

January 17.—The Minnesota Legislature reelects United States Senator Moses E. Clapp (Rep.); the North Dakota Legislature reelects Senator McCumber (Rep.); the Indiana Legislature reelects Senator Albert J. Beveridge (Rep.) and chooses Representative James A. Hemenway (Rep.) to succeed Vice-President-elect Fairbanks in the Senate; the Nebraska Legislature elects Representative Elmer J. Burkett (Rep.) to the United States Senate; the Massachusetts Legislature reelects Senator Henry Cabot Lodge (Rep.), and elects Winthrop Murray Crane (Rep.) to fill the unexpired term of the late Senator Hoar.

January 18.—The following United States Senators are reelected by the legislatures of their respective States: Chauncey M. Depew (Rep., N. Y.), Nelson W. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.), Eugene Hale (Rep., Maine), and J. C. Burrows (Rep., Mich.); ex-Gov. Morgan G. Bulkeley (Rep.) is elected United States Senator in Connecticut, and Philander C. Knox (Rep.) in Pennsylvania.

January 20.—United States Senator Reed Smoot, of Utah, takes the stand in his own defense in the investigation of protests against his retaining his seat in the Senate.

#### POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

December 23.—The French ministry is sustained in the Chamber of Deputies after a debate on the spying system.

December 25.—Vilbrun Guillaume, former Haitien minister of war, is sentenced to penal servitude for life for implication in the fraudulent issue of bonds.

December 26.—The Czar of Russia addresses to the Senate an imperial decree entitled "A Scheme for the Improvement of the Administration of the State."

December 27.—The Moscow Zemstvo adjourns indefinitely, declaring it impossible to conduct public business in view of the attitude of the government in relation to the zemstvo meetings....A Haitien court renders a judgment in default condemning ex-President Sam to imprisonment for life in connection with the fraudulent bond cases.

December 28.—Premier von Koerber, of Austria, resigns office....A new cabinet is formed in Greece, with M. Delyannis as premier.

December 29.—The Town Council of St. Petersburg resolves to petition for the convening of a congress of representatives of the municipal councils of all Russia....Orders are placed for the rearmament of the entire British army.

December 31.—Baron Gautsch von Frankenthurn is appointed Austrian premier, to succeed Dr. von Koerber; the other members of the cabinet retain their portfolios.

January 6.—Members of the Danish cabinet resign, owing to a disagreement over the military situation.

January 10.—The French Chamber of Deputies elects Paul Doumer president, to succeed M. Brisson.

January 11.—King Christian of Denmark names J. C. Christensen to form a new cabinet and take the post of minister of war and marine.

January 15.—The Combes ministry in France decides to resign.

January 18.—The resignation of the Combes ministry is accepted by President Loubet, of France.



VICE-ADMIRAL DUBASSOV.

(Russian member of the North Sea Commission.)

#### INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

December 22.—Japan consents to negotiate an arbitration treaty with the United States....The North Sea Commission begins its sessions in Paris, all four admirals being present; Admiral von Spaun, of the Austro-Hungarian navy, is unanimously chosen the fifth member of the commission.

December 23.—The French minister at Tangier is instructed to withdraw all Frenchmen from the capital....Secretary Hay's note to the powers suggesting a further exchange of views in regard to a second peace conference at The Hague is made public.

December 26.—Bulgaria gives notice to the powers that she will not accept responsibility for reprisals made because of excesses committed by Turkish troops.

December 29.—It is announced that Admiral Kaznakov, whose health has given way, is to be succeeded by Admiral Dubassov on the North Sea Commission.

January 10.—A treaty of peace and amity between Chile and Bolivia is signed.

January 11.—It is announced at Washington that the arbitration treaties pending in the United States Senate will be withdrawn if amendments neutralizing their intended effect are made.

January 13.—The United States demands of Haiti the annulment of sentence against an American on pain of energetic intervention.

January 19.—The first public session of the North Sea Commission is held at the French foreign office....It is announced that the United States has received assurances from the powers that they will not attempt to extend their territorial possessions in China at the close of the Russo-Japanese war.

January 20.—An arbitration treaty between the United States and Sweden and Norway is signed at Washington.

## THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

December 21.—The Japanese occupy the height to the north of Hou-san-yen-tao, near Pigeon Bay, also the height on peninsula in Pigeon Bay.

December 22.—A Japanese squadron of powerful cruisers has gone to the South China Sea to meet the Russian Baltic squadron....The Japanese discover three Russian naval officers on board the captured steamer *Nigretia*.

December 25.—The Russians are dislodged from several outposts on the Japanese right....Admiral Togo announces the withdrawal of the majority of the Japanese fleet from Port Arthur.

December 27.—The Russian cartridges seized at Feng-tai, near Peking, number about 3,500,000.

December 28.—The Japanese occupy the whole fort of Erhlung-shan; their casualties number 1,000. They capture 43 guns....Admiral Skrydlov is recalled from Vladivostok to St. Petersburg.

December 30.—Admiral Togo and Vice-Admiral Kamimura are enthusiastically welcomed at Tokio, where they are received by the Emperor of Japan.

December 31.—The Japanese capture Sung Shu-Shan, "H" Fort, and a new fort at Pan-Lang-Shan, thus securing control of the entire western half of the eastern fort ridge at Port Arthur.

January 1.—General Stoessel makes overtures for the surrender of Port Arthur.

January 2.—Formal terms for the surrender of Port Arthur are concluded at a conference between aides of the opposing generals....The Russian squadron of five battleships and three cruisers, with auxiliary craft, is anchored in the harbor of Sainte-Marie, Madagascar.

January 3.—The Japanese take formal possession of Port Arthur.

January 5.—The Czar summons an extraordinary war council.

January 6.—Only eighty of the Russian officers at Port Arthur accept the Japanese offer of parole.

January 8.—The transfer of prisoners at Port Arthur is completed, 878 officers and 23,491 men being surrendered.

## OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

December 23.—The lieutenant and thirty-seven enlisted men of a detachment of Filipinos are ambushed and killed in Samar.

December 27.—President Roosevelt consents to become the honorary president of the American Committee on Excavations at Herculaneum.

December 28.—Thousands of workmen in the Baku oil fields go out on strike.

January 1.—For the first time in the history of United Italy, aldermen of the Clerical party attend the reception at the Quirinal.

January 6.—The Archbishop of Canterbury refuses a request of American churches that he have the educational tax removed from British Nonconformists....The Forestry Congress in Washington adopts resolutions urging more stringent measures for preserving the timber on the public lands....Lick Observatory announces the discovery of a sixth satellite of Jupiter and a number of double stars.

January 9.—Secretary Morton and Admiral Dewey review, at Hampton Roads, the greatest assemblage of

warships ever known in the history of the United States.

January 10.—The annual meeting of the American Public Health Association is formally opened in Havana.

January 11.—Ambassador Choate speaks at the unveiling of the statue of Lord Russell of Killowen at London.

January 19.—During the ceremony of blessing the waters of the Neva at St. Petersburg, grapeshot, discharged from a battery in firing a salute, falls near the person of the Czar....Six persons are killed and nine seriously injured in a collision of three trains on the Midland Railway of England.

## OBITUARY.

December 21.—Admiral Sir Erasmus Ommaney, known as "the Father of the British Navy," 90....Ex-United States Senator George L. Shoup, of Idaho, 68.

December 25.—Rev. John Mackenzie Bacon, a well-known English scientist, 58....Ex-Congressman Hugh H. Price, of Wisconsin, 45.

December 27.—Representative William F. Mahoney, of the Eighth Illinois District, 48....James F. Secor, an old-time shipbuilder of New York, 90.

December 28.—Eugene G. Blackford, formerly commissioner of fish and fisheries of New York State, 65.

December 31.—John Mollenhauer, a leading American sugar refiner, 77....Ex-Congressman P. V. Deuster, of Wisconsin, 73.

January 1.—Chief Justice Albert Mason, of the Massachusetts Superior Court, 68....Cardinal Langenieux, Archbishop of Rheims, 80.

January 3.—William H. Baldwin, Jr., president of the Long Island Railroad Company, 42. (See frontispiece.)

January 4.—Theodore Thomas, the noted orchestra leader, 69 (see page 196)....Prof. Benjamin W. Frazier, of Lehigh University, 65.

January 5.—Ex-Gov. William Claflin, of Massachusetts, 87....Henry V. Poor, known for many years as a railroad authority and an expert on financial affairs, 92....Karl Klauser, a well-known musical instructor of Farmington, Conn., 81....Madam Belle Cole, the American singer.

January 8.—Ex-Gov. Lloyd Lowndes, of Maryland, 60....Warren F. Draper, of Andover, Mass., a publisher of theological works, 86.

January 9.—Louise Michel, the French communist and anarchist agitator, 75.

January 10.—Rev. Edmund J. Wolf, D.D., president of the General Synod of the Lutheran Church, 65.

January 11.—Prof. William T. Matthews, the well-known artist, 70.

January 12.—Ex-Gov. Silas Garber, of Nebraska, 72....K. H. Sarasohn, founder and editor of the *Jewish Daily News*, in New York City, 70.

January 13.—Rev. James Henry Parks, D.D., the well-known Baptist clergyman of New Jersey, 77.

January 15.—Robert Swain Gifford, an eminent landscape painter and etcher, 64....Gen. Reuben Williams, the veteran editor of Indiana, 73.

January 17.—Dr. Leonard J. Gordon, founder of the free public library of Jersey City, 61....The Grand Duchess Caroline of Saxe-Weimar, 19.

January 19.—George Henry Boughton, the Anglo-American painter, 70.



## SOME CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



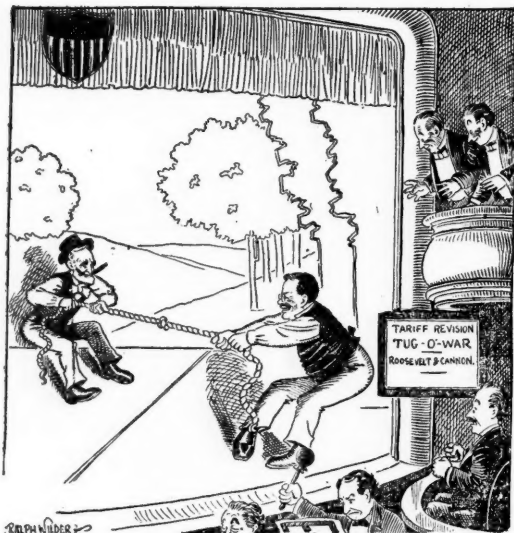
**HUSH!!!—From the *Evening News* (Detroit).**



**THE CLUB GETS IN A PRELIMINARY WALLOP.**  
**From the Press (Cleveland).**



TRYING TO BLOCK HIS WAY.  
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



PULL, THEODORE! PULL!

President Roosevelt and Chairman Cannon in the tariff-revision tug-of-war.—From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).

THE cartoonists, last month, appreciated the President's interest in tariff revision, control of railway rates, exposure of Northwestern land frauds, naval expansion, progress at Panama, order in Venezuela, and many other desirable directions. On the last page of this department we reproduce two striking foreign cartoons, one from a Russian, the other from an Italian source.



THE PRESIDENT AND SECRETARY HITCHCOCK ARE AFTER BIG GAME IN THE PUBLIC LANDS OF THE NORTHWEST.  
From the *Post* (Washington).



OH, YES, THEY'RE PULLING TOGETHER ALL RIGHT.  
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



AS PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT SPELLS IT.  
From the *Evening News* (Detroit).



UNCLE SAM AS AN OPTICIAN.  
"Can you read the small print, Mr. Castro?"  
From the *Press* (Cleveland).



"A CHIEF'S AMANG YOU TAKING NOTES, AND, FAITH, HE'LL PRENT IT."

(Apropos of Mr. Bristow's visit to Panama, to report upon the management of the Panama Railroad and its alleged contracts with favored transportation systems.)

From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



THE CAUSE OF THE COLD WEATHER.

[Uncle Sam doesn't seem to find the latchstring out at Miss Canada's front door. But he must make it clear that he means business, and is able to take a reciprocal view.]

From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago).



WHY HE WAS WHIPPED.

THE RUSSIAN BEAR (to the powers): "Well, you see, I was just fighting for a dinner, while he was fighting for his life." (Apologies to Æsop.)

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



PICKING OUT A FELLOW HE CAN LICK.

Lack of neutrality is as good an excuse as any, for Russia, if he decides to play even by grabbing more Chinese territory.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



HAIL, DEFENDERS OF PORT ARTHUR!

By the famous Russian cartoonist, S. Zhivotovski, in the *Niva*, the popular illustrated weekly of St. Petersburg.



THE RUSSIAN REFORMS.

The Czar's small offering will not keep the bears off for long.—From *Fischietto* (Turin).



AN ALLY.

RUSSIAN: "Halt! Who goes there?"

STRANGER: "Winter!"

RUSSIAN: "Advance, friend!"

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



# THE PANAMA CANAL AND ITS PROBLEMS.

BY JOHN BARRETT.

(United States Minister to Panama.)

IT is the purpose of this article to discuss some of the problems that confront the master builder and master mind of the Panama Canal. The point of view is that of a layman. The arguments are not technical or professional, but simply those that appeal to practical students of public affairs. Had not, however, the editor of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS specially requested me to prepare a paper for lay readers and demonstrated to me its possible educational value, I should not have dared to assume this responsible task.

Public interest in the canal is so widespread that my mail is flooded with hundreds of letters asking all conceivable questions. Judging what is wanted from these queries and from the character of the discussions in American papers, I am endeavoring, with full appreciation of my shortcomings, to answer through this medium all reasonable inquiries in non-technical, everyday terms. These observations are based on investigations conducted during the last six months. The execution of my duties has fortunately enabled me to study the whole canal project impartially and carefully on the ground, and to traverse several times nearly every foot of the route of the canal. Although my official and social relations with the Canal Commission, Governor Davis, and Chief Engineer Wallace are intimate, the opinions expressed in this article do not in any measure commit them or represent their conclusions.

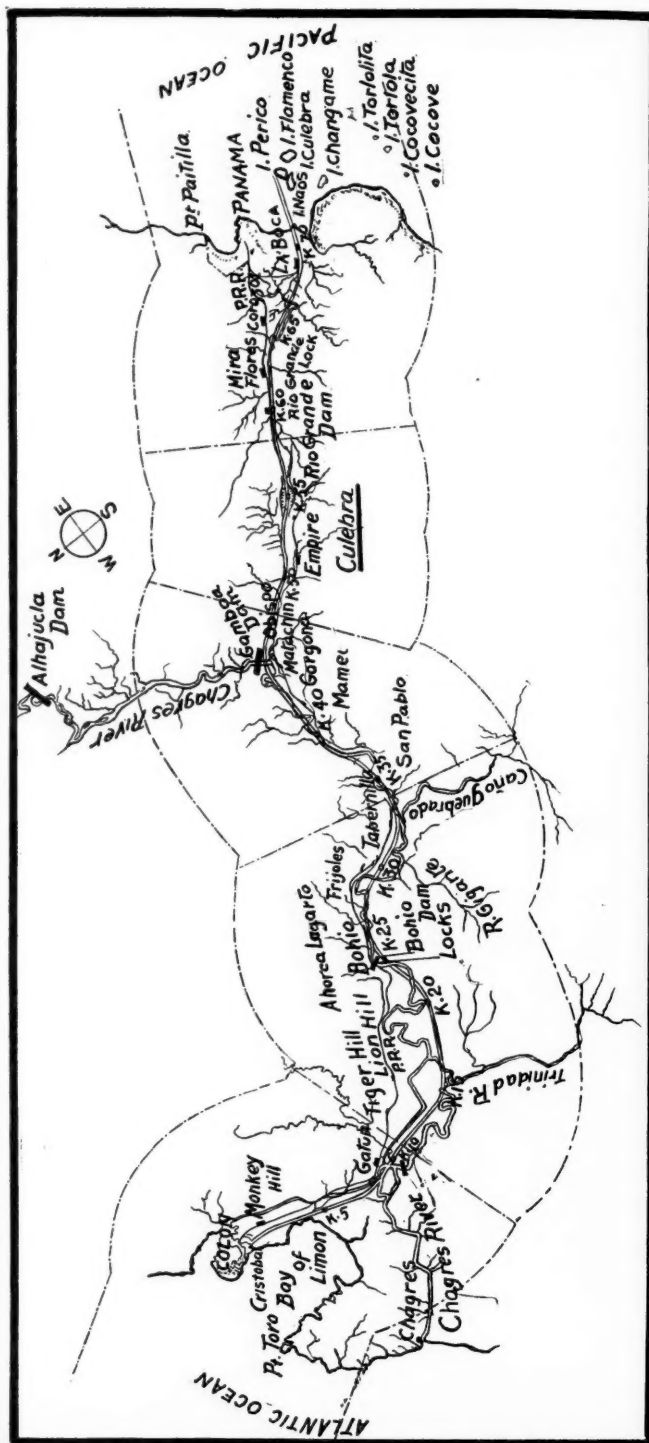
## I.—GREAT RESPONSIBILITIES OF CHIEF ENGINEER WALLACE.

The importance of the position of chief engineer of the Panama Canal cannot be overestimated by the average lay critic. His responsibilities are far greater and broader than is generally supposed by the person who looks at the construction of the canal in a casual way. A chief engineer, in the ordinary use of the term, is a man who looks after the technical side of a work of this character. In truth, technical knowledge is only one quality of the many that the chief engineer of such a mighty undertaking must possess. Invoking a broader definition of engineering as that skill or profession which controls and adapts the forces of nature for the

benefit of mankind, we find that the chief engineer of the Isthmian Canal must be a man of large experience, not only in technical construction, but in the management and direction of men and machinery, and in the meeting and mastering of all the many problems that confront him on every side.

If he knows how to erect a massive concrete dam or lock and to excavate millions of cubic yards of earth, he must also possess commercial and executive knowledge, so that he can do this work with the least expenditure of money and time and with the maximum of efficiency on the part of his subordinates. He may be able at a glance to tell just how a steam-shovel should be placed upon the side of a cut, but if he does not know how to provide an adequate system of transportation to remove the dirt and rock that this and other steam-shovels excavate, he will fail ignominiously. He may possess the technical skill which will enable him to design on paper every detail of the canal so that he will impress the world with its beauty and precision and with his own capability, but if he is ignorant in the direction of the complex system of labor, in the preparation and management of the intricate subdivisions of transportation, construction, excavation, mining, dredging, and finance, he will not answer the requirements of chief engineer upon this Isthmus.

The organization of men and the use of them to supreme advantage are among the chief considerations. By perfect organization, the chief engineer can save millions of dollars to the United States. Perhaps even more important than the organizer is the man who never forgets the value of money and time and finds out to the smallest fraction of a cent the cost of doing every variety of work on the canal within a given time. Here comes in the immeasurable practical advantage to the Canal Commission in having a man, like Chief Engineer Wallace, who has enjoyed long, exacting, and successful experience in managing all the details of a vast railroad system, where the use of every cent is carefully noted and computed, and where the efficiency of a man is measured by the greatest good and service for the railroad he can accomplish at the least cost. While I would not in any way reflect upon the technical skill and



MAP OF THE CANAL ZONE, SHOWING THE LOCATION OF DAMS AND PRINCIPAL POINTS.

(The position of Panama in relation to Central and South America is shown in the small map on the opposite page.)

training of army engineers, and would give all credit for what they have accomplished and are accomplishing, it can be contended that few if any army engineers have ever had such broad experience and training as Chief Engineer Wallace, and that it would therefore seem unwise if the construction of the canal, by any combination of circumstances, were taken out of the hands of this distinguished member of the citizen engineering profession and placed in the hands of the army.

If the qualities required in a chief engineer were to be summed up in terms to be appreciated by those of us who are not engineers but still are keenly interested in the practical success of the canal, it could be said that, estimating his total knowledge and experience as 100 per cent., about 25 per cent. should be classed as technical, 25 per cent. as executive, 25 per cent. as administrative and organizing ability, and 25 per cent. as diplomacy and knowledge of human nature. In other words, the chief engineer of the Panama Canal really requires 75 per cent. of knowledge and experience along other than technical lines. His technical skill must be largely that of discrimination and judgment, to determine what is best among the designs and plans laid before him by his technical subordinates, and to decide, in turn, what is best to recommend to the Canal Commission. If he were unable to organize and administer his work and staff successfully, and if he lacked the power of execution or did not know how to deal with the men below him and above him, and with all others who meet him in

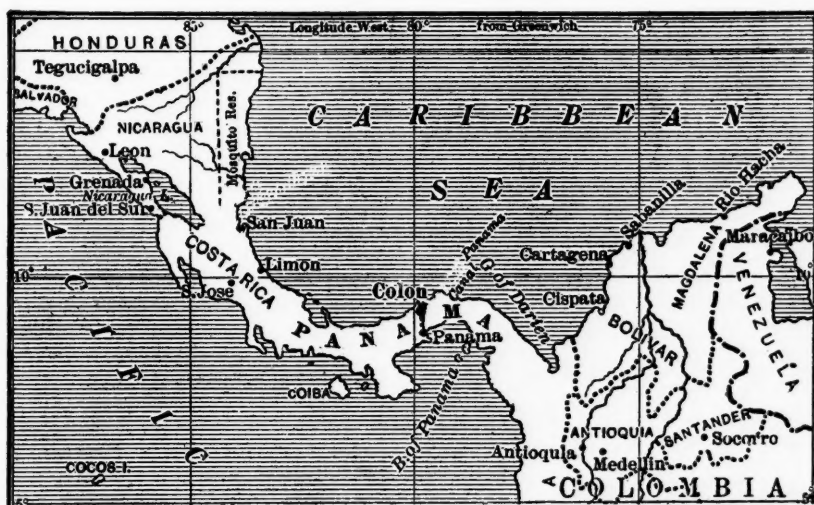
a business or official way, he would make a signal failure. He can hire his technical skill, but no one but himself can supply the executive, administrative, and organizing ability, and the diplomacy, which are essential to the position.

I do not wish to indulge in any flattery, but I am convinced, after watching the work of Chief Engineer Wallace during a trying period of over six months, that he comes as near possessing all the qualities enumerated above as any man that could possibly be obtained, and I am quite sure that the judgment of Secretary Taft and the Congressmen who have recently visited the Isthmus, as well as that of the Canal Commission itself, coincides with my estimate of the man. It is therefore to be hoped that he will receive the support and coöperation, not only of the United States Government and of Congress, but of the American people, in his conservative and wise policy,—first, to find out what is the best thing to do here, and then to do it in the shortest time and at the smallest cost possible. Officials, engineers, and all other persons watching the work on the canal who reside in the United States should be patient, and be fair in their criticisms of what is being done here. It is one thing for an engineer or an editor, in the quiet, seclusion, and comfort of his own office in the United States, to sit down and write articles and editorials showing just how this vast undertaking should be carried out, and how the chief engineer should do this, that, and the other thing, but it is an entirely different responsibility to come down here on the Isthmus itself, right into the heart of the tropics, and into the midst of all kinds of difficulties, handicaps, and embarrassments, and carry on the work to the satisfaction of all concerned.

As an entirely impartial observer, connected in no way with the Canal Commission, I beg of the American people to have every confidence in Chief Engineer Wallace, and to trust him to the fullest extent to complete the canal successfully, despite all obstacles. The government at Washington,

and Congress, however, have a grave responsibility in equipping him or the commission with sufficient authority, so that he may not be held back and delayed, as he now is, by certain unfortunate features of organization and responsibility. Perhaps there is no more constant responsibility on the chief engineer than that of keeping "graft" out of this vast work, where possibly \$250,000,000 must be expended before it is completed. The attacks are already being made by the "grafters," but they are making no progress with Chief Engineer Wallace. There is, therefore, consequent danger that they will endeavor to attack him under cover at Washington. There are evidences that they have commenced their insidious persecution. The good people of the central West, especially of Illinois, who have known him intimately through a long period of years, must stand by him in the fight that may yet be made upon him by those who are actuated only by selfish and personal interests.

In justice to Chief Engineer Wallace as he stands before the American people, and to correct some of the newspapers, which have unfairly assailed him for advocating a sea-level canal, and which have quoted him as saying that such a waterway would cost \$300,000,000 and occupy twenty years in construction, I desire to call attention to the fact that Mr. Wallace has not yet advocated either a sea-level or a high-level canal, and has not yet submitted any final figures as to the cost or time of construction. These stories and criticisms emanate from the statement he made before the Congressional



MAP SHOWING THE LOCATION OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

committee when they questioned him during their recent visit to the Isthmus. If this official report, later on submitted to Congress, is carefully read, it will be noticed that he himself did not make any final estimate or express any decided views. He simply informed the committee what were the estimates and the conclusions for a sea-level canal that could be based on the figures of the former commission, respectively of \$300,000,000 and twenty years. It is due to the conservative character of Chief Engineer Wallace's methods to state that he will not commit himself on this point until he has made such complete investigations and experiments that he will be sure of his premises and his deductions.

## II.—A SEA-LEVEL OR HIGH-LEVEL CANAL?

Possibly the greatest general problem, and the one that awakens the most popular interest, is whether there shall be a sea-level canal, with only a tide lock on the Panama side, or a high-level canal at 30, 60, or 90 feet above tide-water, with locks and dams in proportion. While I do not as a layman claim the right to discuss conclusively the technical questions involved in the determination of the level, yet I have, in common with all other Americans, a profound desire to see the kind of canal constructed that will best serve the commerce of the United States and the world. There is little doubt in the minds of the majority of men who study the question carefully, either in the United States or here on the ground, that if the chief engineer, after thorough investigation, favors a sea-level canal, that plan should be approved by Congress and the money provided to carry it through.

With the fullest respect for the views of those members of the commission who favor a high-level canal with locks, I shall submit herewith such arguments as may be understood by non-professional readers in support of the sea-level scheme. Some of the salient points that must be brought into consideration in deciding upon any level are: (1) interest on cost of construction; (2) annual charge for maintenance; (3) annual charge for operation; (4) value to ships of time occupied and safety assured in passing through the canal. In this connection it must be remembered that the canal which is the cheapest in the cost of construction may be the most expensive in the end.

We may now note the principal points in favor of a sea-level waterway:

1. Increased economy of maintenance and operation as compared with canal with locks.

2. Time saved and dangers avoided in passage of vessels through a canal without locks.

3. Minimum of liability to damage in times of war, or by extraordinary action of the elements of nature, such as earthquakes, floods, etc.

4. Avoidance of the great cost of locks and dams, which sum can be applied against the increased original cost of the sea-level over the high-level canal.

5. Condition of flexibility which permits widening or deepening the canal without putting it out of service, whereas extensive widening and deepening of a high-level canal would destroy its utility for a long period and disastrously affect the commerce of the world.

The strongest arguments that can be presented in favor of a high-level canal, say of 90 feet or 60 feet, or even 30 feet, with, respectively, six, four, and two locks to correspond (as now planned), are those of cost and time required for construction. There is no doubt that the higher the level the quicker will be the time and the lesser the cost of construction.

It is reasonable, from data now at hand, to predict that the maximum difference in the time between the opening of a sea-level and a high-level canal to the ships of the world need not be more than four or five years, and that the cost of the former need not exceed the latter by more than \$50,000,000, unless some great unforeseen and unexpected difficulties are encountered.

As this statement will tend to arouse discussion, I have carefully worked out the figures in support of my contention. From knowledge we have at hand, based upon experience with the old French machinery, steam-shovels, and transportation facilities in the central, or Culebra, section, which presents the greatest difficulties and cost, it can be stated that this central section can be excavated, by the use of modern steam-shovels and machinery, for \$30,000,000 less than the estimate of the former canal commission! Carefully computed figures of cost per cubic yard of earth and rock demonstrate this saving beyond question. For instance, Chief Engineer Wallace has already made the remarkable record of reducing the expense per cubic yard of excavation of earth and loose rock in the Culebra section from 80 cents per cubic yard under the French *régime* (and a figure used by the former commission in its estimates) approximately to 50 cents per cubic yard, and it is not at all improbable that he will have this down to 40 cents when modern American steam-shovels and transportation facilities under experienced engineers are installed. Now, to this \$30,000,000 let us add \$20,000,000 saved on construction of other sections of the canal, and we can count upon the sum



of \$50,000,000 as a clear saving over the former estimates and rendered available for the construction of a sea-level canal. The estimate of the former commission also included \$50,000,000 which has been paid out in proportionate amounts to the French company and the Panama Government for property and franchises.

If we now add this latter \$50,000,000 to the other \$50,000,000, we have a total of \$100,000,000, which subtracted from the total former estimate of \$300,000,000 will make the actual *bona fide* cost of the sea-level canal only \$200,000,000. The estimate of the former commission for a high-level canal was \$200,000,000. If we subtract from that the \$50,000,000 paid proportionately to the French company and the Panama Government, we have \$150,000,000 as the actual *bona fide* cost of the high-level canal, or a difference between the two projects, in confirmation of my conclusion stated above, of only \$50,000,000. Of course, it may be maintained that there should be a corresponding deduction, on account of modern machines and methods, in the commission's estimates for a high-level canal, but the point I wish to make is that a sea-level waterway need not cost more than \$50,000,000 beyond the average amount which the American people have been educated to believe must be expended to have any kind of a canal, and which expenditure they have already ratified with enthusiasm. Considering the signal advantages to be gained by a sea-level canal, this additional amount will be readily approved by them, especially when they are convinced that the time required will not be too long.

Having, I hope, demonstrated that these estimates of cost, based primarily on figures of the former commission, whose estimates have been considered conservative and ample and have never been questioned by engineers familiar with the situation, are worthy of serious consideration, I will try to show how a sea-level canal can be ready for use in ten years from January 1, 1904, or in 1914. The one great engineering problem is the removal and disposal of the earth and rock from the Culebra, or central, section, which is from eight to ten miles in length. The control of the Chagres River is no longer considered by members of the commission or by the chief engineer and his assistants as presenting any insurmountable difficulty or serious delay in the completion of the canal. Of that point something is stated farther on. The character of the work to be done on the other sections of the canal is such that it can all be completed easily by the time the Culebra section is ready. In other words, it will take longer to excavate the ten miles of the Culebra section

than the other forty miles. This Culebra division is the only part of the canal route that really presents conditions and difficulties that have never been met before in canal-construction. The other portions have their counterparts in the Suez and Chicago Drainage canals. The tide-water sections on the Atlantic and Pacific, respectively from Colon to Bohio and from Panama to Miraflores, correspond to the work of the Suez Canal; the sections on the Pacific and Atlantic sides, respectively from Bohio to Obispo and from Miraflores to Pedro Miguel, have their counterpart in the Chicago Drainage Canal. We can, therefore, estimate almost to a day and a cent how long and how much it will take to build these portions of the canal. Stated in another way, the conformation of the surface and the character of the material are such that sufficient machines can be put to work to complete all the other sections before the Culebra division, with its many limitations and difficulties, is ready for use.

These deductions now bring us to the main consideration of how much time will be required to excavate the Culebra, or central, division so that vessels drawing 25 to 30 feet can pass safely through. From thorough tests, Mr. W. E. Dauchy, the engineer under Mr. Wallace in charge of Culebra and formerly chief engineer of the Rock Island Railroad system, has demonstrated that the steam-excavators which are now at work in the Culebra cut can handle 25,000 cubic yards per machine per month, working ten out of twenty-four hours for twenty-five days in the month. This means an average of 360,000 yards per annum for each machine. If we make a liberal reduction of 50,000 yards for time when the machine is idle through repairs, rains, slides, etc., we can place this estimate at 310,000 cubic yards. Now, then, if two machines are placed every half-mile of the section, one on each side of the cut, for a distance of eight miles, allowing for the gradual slant on both sides, we have thirty-two machines excavating 9,920,000 cubic yards a year. As there are 100,000,000 cubic yards to be excavated in the Culebra division for a sea-level canal, we have approximately ten years required in which to do the work. Two years added for all kinds of contingencies makes twelve. The question now arises, How is the sea-level canal, then, to be finished by January, 1914, or less than ten years from now? The explanation is simple and logical.

These estimates just given are all based on the supposition that the steam-shovels, machinery, and forces work only in the daytime, or ten hours per day for twenty-five days in each month. The dam which it has been determined

can be constructed in two years from now to control the Chagres River at Gamboa is sure to develop from 25,000 to 50,000 constant horsepower. This should yield sufficient electric power, not only to operate the transportation service and machinery of the canal, but to illuminate brilliantly the entire length of it and enable the construction to go on at night as well as in the day! As the climate not only permits work to be done at night, but makes that time, by avoidance of the sun, far better for the laborers, it seems entirely logical that the whole time for the construction of the canal, including that for the completion of the Gamboa dam and the installation of electric plants (inasmuch as electric light can be provided in the meantime from other sources and the use of the Gamboa power is purely for economy), might easily be reduced to one-half, or to six years. However, that there may be further allowances for rainy weather, landslides, other disadvantages, and possible lesser efficiency of night-work, we will add two years for the preparation of the canal for actual use and for the successful installation of the organization for operation, and then we should be able to see the largest vessels steaming through from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and *vice versa*, in 1914. The use of the canal by vessels of the average draught now coming to Panama and Colon can be expected even before dredging to the depth limit of forty feet is completed.

### III.—PROJECTS FOR DAMS AND ARTIFICIAL LAKES.

As it is the purpose of this article, in accordance with the suggestion of the editor, to take up and discuss the important features of the work before Chief Engineer Wallace, so that the average non-professional man and woman can understand and take a deeper interest in the canal project, I will make brief reference to the much-discussed dams and artificial lakes which cut considerable figure in the plans of the Canal Commission. These are generally described as the Gatun, Bohio, Gamboa, and Alhajuela projects. The facts developed by the technical investigations of the engineers have practically eliminated all of these except the Gamboa dam. This will so restrain the waters of the famous Chagres River at all times, especially at the flood, that they will not flow into the canal so as to impede navigation or fill it with sediment. It is, in other words, practically the solution of the Chagres problem. The greatest engineering difficulty heretofore emphasized in constructing a canal across the Isth-

mus has been the presence of the Chagres River cutting into and across its route.

The Gamboa dam, which impounds the waters of the Chagres to the east of the canal and in the mountains, also carries with it the important project of a tunnel through the lateral mountains which will keep the surface of the water in an artificial lake at such a distance below the crest of the dam as to provide sufficient capacity to take care of the maximum flow of the Chagres without causing the dam to overflow. The water drawn off by the conduits through the dam will generate electric power and also serve to reduce the level of the water above the dam. In case of a high-level canal, it can also provide the necessary water for the operation of the summit level. In the opinion of the best experts, the Gamboa scheme is entirely feasible, and will probably be followed, unless it is entirely given up, and a dam at Bohio constructed. The Alhajuela project is supplementary to the Bohio plan, and would simply form an additional reservoir farther up the Chagres to impound a portion of its waters and supply the Bohio lake in the event of a prolonged dry season. The Gatun dam below and in place of Bohio is now deemed impracticable on account of the extreme depth of bed-rock.

The dam at Bohio would require a gigantic structure, the highest in the world above bed-rock and the deepest below the surface. Its purpose would be to make a large lake reaching back to the Culebra section and entered by a series of great locks, thereby saving a long distance of excavation. In other terms, the channel of the canal would extend fifteen miles through an artificial inland lake which would at the same time impound the waters of the Chagres River and allow them to pass off through a spillway without damage to the rest of the canal. The Bohio is only a necessity for the 90-foot level in combination with the artificial lake, while the Gamboa dam would serve all levels below the 90-foot.

The Bohio dam could only be constructed at an enormous cost and in the face of serious engineering difficulties. Solid rock is 165 feet below the level of the sea at Bohio, not to count the 50 feet between the level of the sea and the surface of the ground. Only an engineer can appreciate the vast difficulty of putting in a suitable foundation for such an immense structure 165 feet below the land level of tide-water. The problem is increased by the porous, water-bearing nature of the material overlying the rock at this point. If, moreover, this dam were ever seriously injured by earthquakes, or by explosives in time of war, the canal would be

rendered absolutely useless for a long period, and no man can overestimate the harm that would result to the prestige and commerce of the United States in such a situation. If the Gamboa dam were injured, the harm would only be temporary, and the repairs could be made in a comparatively short time. The flood resulting might wash out or partially fill with *débris* some sections of the canal, but dredgers and excavators could soon restore it to its proper condition. At the Gamboa site, bed-rock is found at sea level, and no serious engineering difficulties stand in the way of its construction. If built according to the best modern practice, it will suffice against all probabilities of freshets or extra strains. The flow of the Chagres for a great many years has been carefully estimated, and this dam would easily restrain its waters. No flood has occurred on the Isthmus within the record of mankind that could destroy it or overtax the provisions made by its walls and the proposed tunnel.

#### IV.—THE PROBLEM OF SECURING COMPETENT LABOR.

One of the most difficult problems before the commission and the chief engineer is that of securing competent labor. Skilled men of nearly all classes can be secured from the United States, but up to the present time there has not been a sufficient number of ordinary day-laborers applying to supply the imperative demands of the chief engineer. The average white laborers of the United States cannot possibly stand the tropical climate. It is therefore entirely out of the question to think of employing them in any large number. Americans can act in all positions, from foremen, machinists, and chainmen up to the highest posts, but they suffice for no work lower than these positions. The force of the department of engineering and construction, on January 1, 1905, amounted, approximately, to 3,000 men. Of these, about 2,640 were laborers paid in silver, or the currency of the country, and classed as artisans, as laborers receiving 17½ cents silver per hour, and as laborers receiving 15 cents silver per hour. The artisans number 750, and receive wages averaging from \$50 to \$150 silver per month. These include a certain percentage of Americans and other foreigners who have drifted to the Isthmus for one reason or another and yet are competent men. Laborers who are paid 15 cents an hour number about 1,500, while those who earn 17½ cents per hour are only 350. The latter class represent promotions from the former division. This system of advancement has an excellent

effect on the great mass of laborers. These wages may not seem large in the United States, but they are far beyond what was paid on the Isthmus before the United States began work, and now represent to the fullest extent the earning capacity of the men compared with similar labor in the United States.

By far the greatest portion of common laborers upon the canal and associated works hail from Jamaica. After these come in varying proportions men from the other West Indian islands, Central and South American countries, and Panama. The actual natives of the Isthmus are not fond of the heavy hard work required by the chief engineer, and it is difficult to induce them to take positions other than those of light labor. A considerable proportion of the Jamaicans, left over from the old French *régime*, have made their homes permanently on the Isthmus, and therefore might be classed with the natives. They, however, rigidly refuse to renounce their allegiance as British subjects, and so should not be considered strictly as people of Panama.

Recently, Secretary Taft, accompanied by Admiral Walker and Chief Engineer Wallace, visited Jamaica in the hope of making some arrangement with the government of that island so that its natives could come to the Isthmus in such numbers as are required for work on the canal, but the British governor-general stipulated terms which neither the Secretary of War nor the chief engineer have yet seen fit to accept. The fact remains, however, that plenty of labor, or all that is needed for the construction of the canal, could be obtained from Jamaica if the natives were only permitted to come to Colon. Careful investigation on the island of Jamaica, not only by Mr. Wallace, but by British Consul Mallet, of Panama, and Mr. Lee, secretary of the American legation, Panama, who accompanied Secretary Taft, developed the truth beyond question that the Jamaicans themselves are most anxious to secure employment at the hands of the commission, but that they are held back by the regulations of their government. I do not mention this as any reflection on the governor-general, but rather in the hope that he may see fit to alter his terms. In the meantime, Mr. Karner, assistant to Mr. Wallace, has gone to the Barbadoes, in response to an intimation from the British authorities, to investigate the possibility and feasibility of securing labor from that island, while further negotiations are being opened in Nicaragua and Costa Rica.

Various plans are also being discussed for the employment of Porto Ricans, Chinese, and Japanese. Porto Ricans will be tried, but are com-

monly considered as lacking sufficient endurance. The present laws of Panama excluding Chinese, and the fear of the American authorities that they might be smuggled into the United States in large numbers from the Isthmus, stand in the way of their employment. These objections to the Chinese can be removed by rigid regulations, and there is a growing feeling that the commission may be absolutely dependent upon them for reliable permanent labor. The result of the war between Japan and Russia will have a bearing on the employment of Japanese coolies. If that struggle is soon over, it is not improbable that a considerable number of them could be put to work. There is one great advantage in having different kinds of laborers,—if they are all of one nationality, there will be constant danger of strikes and sympathetic opposition to the employers; if the labor is divided among various nationalities, there will be a measure of competition and a lack of sympathy that will tend to the accomplishment of far greater results in the amount of work done.

The total number of men employed in every way by the Canal Commission at present reaches, approximately, 4,000, there being 1,000 under General Davis in addition to the 3,000 under Chief Engineer Wallace. The stories often published in the United States that 25,000 or 30,000 laborers will be required on the canal are gross exaggerations. The best estimates limit the number, when the work is in full swing, to 15,000. If we add another 10,000 to cover families and people brought here in one way and another on account of the canal-construction, we can conservatively state that the total increase of population resulting from the building of this waterway will not exceed 25,000. I mention this in order to destroy the effect of some of the foolish reports that have gained credence in the United States and tended to bring Americans of all kinds, seeking business opportunities or employment, to the Isthmus. This legation has so many demands made upon it to pay return passages to the United States and to assist stranded Americans that the minister speaks feelingly.

#### V.—THE WELFARE OF EMPLOYEES ON THE ISTHMUS.

The comprehensive attention of the chief engineer to all the important details of this work is illustrated by his interest in the physical and moral welfare of the canal employees. From his wide experience as one of the principal executives of the Illinois Central Railway, he recognizes that the amount of work done by employees is vastly increased by their physical and

moral condition. He is doing everything he can to provide them with satisfactory dormitories and accommodations, although he has been heavily handicapped in the first stages of the work by the lack of proper quarters. He is now coöperating with Governor Davis, Colonel Gorgas, chief of the sanitary staff, and myself to perfect plans for the establishment of branches of the Young Men's Christian Association in Panama, Culebra, Empire, and Colon, so that every provision under the wise management of this organization, as developed by its long experience in the United States and foreign countries, will be made for the welfare of the young men in the form of suitable places for rendezvous, amusement, entertainment, and physical exercise in a wholesome moral environment.

As it is now, most of the young men on the Isthmus have absolutely no places of amusement, recreation, and rendezvous except the saloons and gambling places. It is believed by the gentlemen named above and by Secretary Taft that the Canal Commission has a right (under the instructions of the President to provide for the well-being of the men in their employ) to appropriate money for the construction of necessary buildings for the Young Men's Christian Association and for maintenance, especially as this association is entirely non-sectarian. Catholics as well as Protestants are welcome to its membership. It is to be hoped that the Canal Commission, for its own good and for the efficiency of its employees, will take the necessary steps in this matter. They can certainly count upon the unanimous support of Christian family influence throughout the United States in doing whatever is required and reasonable for the moral and physical well-being of the sons and brothers who leave the favorable surroundings of their homes in the United States to serve their country in the construction of this mighty waterway in a tropical land and under totally different conditions.

That families in all parts of the United States have a direct personal concern in the work of the canal is demonstrated by a list showing the States from which hail the men, including engineers, assistant engineers, rodmen, clerks, stenographers, foremen, machinery engineers, and others on the "cold roll" employed in the engineering and construction divisions of the Isthmian Canal Commission, as follows: New York, 49; Illinois, 33; District of Columbia, 16; Michigan, 16; Massachusetts, 14; Virginia, 12; Pennsylvania, 8; New Jersey, 6; Minnesota, 6; Indiana, 6; Maryland, 5; Louisiana, 5; Iowa, 4; Tennessee, 3; Texas, 3; West Virginia, 2; Mississippi, 2; Colorado, 2; Maine, 2; Georgia, 2; Florida, 2; Missouri, 2; Nebraska, 2; Con-



necticut, 2; California, 2; Nevada, 1; Wisconsin, 1; Arkansas, 1; Vermont, 1; North Carolina, 1; Rhode Island, 1; Kentucky, 1; Kansas, 1. That the chief engineer also takes into consideration the right and ambition of the young men of Panama to secure employment with the Canal Commission is shown by the fact that 145 out of 360 high-class employees are natives. This latter condition has completely silenced the complaints that were started in Panama to the effect that the work of the canal was bringing no benefit to the better class of Isthmians in the form of employment. This list given above does not include 256 other high-class employees under the special section of administration of the canal zone, at the head of which is General Davis. These come from all portions of the United States, and include forty young women nurses in the different hospitals. A similar proportion of the administrative staff are natives of Panama. The totals given above of 360 men under Mr. Wallace and 256 under Governor Davis will increase, within another year, respectively to 600 and 400, or 1,000 in all.

This feature of my discussion would not be complete without at least a passing reference to the sanitary staff and the health conditions. Colonel Gorgas, at the head of the sanitary force, assisted by Major LaGarde, Dr. Carter, Dr. Balch, and other competent and experienced men, is striving with all his energies, despite the limited sum of money placed at his disposal, to kill off the yellow-fever and malarial mosquitoes, and to prevent the spread of these dreaded diseases. In the opinion of many who are competent to judge, it is a pity, and even a serious mistake, that Colonel Gorgas has not been provided with a larger sum and more extended organization to prosecute his work. It is of the highest importance that he should be dealt with liberally if he is to stamp out these diseases and repeat his brilliant record in Cuba. Up to this writing, there have been about fourteen cases of yellow fever during the last six or seven months, or, approximately, since July 1, 1904, of which the number of deaths has not exceeded 20 per cent. It has been demonstrated that the best antidote for yellow fever is good nursing, and there are employed in the hospitals at Panama and Colon some forty young women, trained nurses from the United States and Canada, under direction of Miss Hibbard, who also distinguished herself in Cuba. The fact that a few American women have died here of yellow fever is no cause for panic or alarm either on the Isthmus or in the United States, because yellow fever has been prevalent to a greater or less degree in Panama for scores of years, and

these particular deaths have been proved to have resulted largely from primary carelessness on the part of the victims. Of course, there is always the possibility of an extended outbreak of either yellow fever or malaria, in the form of the so-called Chagres fever, but it is to be hoped that the sanitary staff may have the time and the support to conquer these enemies of the canal's successful construction.

#### VI.—ASSOCIATED PROBLEMS TO BE SOLVED.

Before concluding this discussion, it is well to note some of the many other responsibilities that are resting upon the shoulders of the chief engineer.

1. He is building an entire new sewerage system for the city of Panama, which requires a large staff of men, under Mr. C. B. Davis, engineer in charge, and which presents many interesting problems of sanitation.

2. He is constructing a system of water-works, the first ever possessed by Panama, to bring water some ten miles, from Rio Grande Lake, near Culebra cut, to every house in Panama and the suburbs. Private interests have endeavored to force Mr. Wallace to take water from another point on the Juan Dias River, farther distant from Panama, at a largely increased cost, but he has stood by his project, and will be able to supply water of equal quality to Panama in a third of the time and at a third of the cost that would be required by the scheme supported by private interests.

3. He has before him the prospect of being called upon to take over the management of the Panama Railway, so that it may be run in harmony with the plans of the commission and in complete coöperation with the chief engineer. Mr. Wallace's large experience as a railway man will be of great practical benefit here, because the rapid construction of the canal depends in considerable measure on the assistance of the Panama Railway.

4. He must make a new harbor at Colon, the Atlantic end of the canal, dredging its entire area and building massive breakwaters, so that it can hold the commercial and naval fleets of the world; he must raise the city of Colon several feet above its present level and provide it with water and sewerage systems, and he must erect a great electric-power plant near Gamboa, surpassed only by the plant at Niagara Falls, which will supply electric light for the entire Isthmus, and electric power for running the railways and machinery required in the construction of the canal.

### VII.—LEADING QUESTIONS ANSWERED.

I am repeatedly asked whether the application of the civil-service regulations assists or hampers the chief engineer. My answer is frank: One of the most perplexing and unexpected difficulties that confronts Chief Engineer Wallace is the application of the civil-service rules to the employees in his departments of the canal work. It is to be hoped that these regulations will not be enforced as originally announced, and there is reason to believe that the visits to the Isthmus of Secretary Taft and the Congressional committee, who were able to see the difficulties of the application of these rules, will result in their modification. The fact that two experts were recently sent to Panama by the Civil Service Commission to investigate the facts is another hopeful sign. While the civil-service system is thoroughly applicable to most of the departments in Washington, the peculiar conditions here make it impossible to apply it without serious embarrassment to the chief engineer. In Washington and the United States, the work in the governmental departments is regular, uniform, and continuous. Here, it is entirely of an emergency nature. Although it will probably continue for eight or ten years, it will be always changing in its character, and will demand an organization, not only highly efficient, but very flexible. It is difficult to imagine any influence that would hamper a man of the wide experience and great executive training of Chief Engineer Wallace more than to be compelled to appoint, promote, or remove his assistants, upon whom he depends for effective execution of his orders, by and with, the consent of civil-service officers, no matter how able and sympathetic these latter men may be. Then, again, the constant necessity of shifting men from one department to another, according as their fitness as determined by trial or as the emergencies of the work require, in order to keep up the standard of efficiency, often conflicts with the civil-service regulations. In short, Chief Engineer Wallace is like a general of an army deploying his troops in battle, and who must always be ready for a new situation. His working forces must possess the highest measure of mobility to achieve victory over the difficulties in his way. I make this statement with all the more earnestness because I am a sincere believer in the general utility and benefit of the civil-service regulations.

A number of questions are repeatedly asked in regard to the dimensions of the canal. The total length of the canal, from a depth of 40

feet in the Caribbean Sea near Colon to 40 feet in the Pacific Ocean near Panama, will be very close to 50 miles. The depth of the canal proper, from the surface of the water to the bottom, will probably be 40 feet, so as to enable the largest vessels to pass in safety. The width on the surface will vary from 200 feet on straight lines or tangents to 280 feet on curves. The bottom will vary from 125 feet on tangents to 200 feet on curves. The cubic yards of earth and rock to be excavated vary, according to the estimates of the former canal commission, from 100,000,000 cubic yards for a high-level canal to 300,000,000 cubic yards for sea-level. If any one wishes to get a practical measure of what this latter excavation includes, let him estimate by arithmetic how large a wall he could build around the world with the earth and rock taken out, or how many miles of new subway in New York City would have to be excavated to equal this vast total. Then he will realize what a responsibility and what labor there are before Chief Engineer Wallace.

The question is often asked in the American press and in letters written by those who have not visited the Isthmus, When is the actual work of the canal going to begin? The answer is that work not only has begun, but is being carried forward with remarkable success, considering all the hindrances and embarrassments that confront the chief engineer in the inauguration of such a mighty undertaking. If the critics who are skeptical about the work done could have visited the Isthmus about July 1, 1904, and could come here now, they would be convinced beyond question that a vast amount of preparatory work has been accomplished, and that everything is moving along as rapidly as can be expected in face of many difficulties. It is not for me to discuss any alleged deficiencies or weaknesses that there may be in the present system, and I am confident that if there are such they will be eliminated in due course of time.

The Canal Commission, which is composed of able men, is doing all in its power to inaugurate the successful running of the extensive machinery under its control, and its efforts should not only be considered with patience, but should be supported by all who desire to see the canal carried through to early completion. The names of Admiral Walker and General Davis, respectively representing the navy and army, and of Parsons, Burr, Harrod, and Grunsky, most prominent in the engineering profession, are guaranties to the American people that the canal will be constructed with honor and credit to the nation.

PANAMA, January 3, 1905.

# STREET-RAILWAY FARES IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY EDWARD DANA DURAND.

THE report of the United States Census Bureau on street and electric railways, just published, brings out vividly the rapidity with which electricity has usurped the domain of urban transportation, and the wonderful extension and improvement in facilities which the change has effected. In 1890, the length of all the street-railway tracks (including, as in all other cases hereafter mentioned, second tracks, sidings, and switches) in the country was 8,123 miles. Nearly seven-tenths of this trackage was operated by animal power. In 1902, but a dozen years later, our street railways and interurban lines had 22,577 miles of track, on 97 per cent. of which electricity was the motive power. The stumbling horse, the jerky cable, the smoky locomotive, have been all but banished by the trolley and the motor.

This revolutionary change meant, first and foremost, economy. On the strictly horse railways, in 1890, the operating expenses averaged 73.7 per cent. of the gross earnings, and the average cost of carrying a passenger was slightly over three and one-half cents. The operating expenses of all the railways in 1902 were only 57.5 per cent. of their operating earnings, and the average cost of carrying a passenger had fallen to three cents.

## ELECTRIC TRACTION AND PUBLIC SERVICE.

Such saving in cost of transportation has, in no small measure, inured to the benefit of the public. It has made the railway companies willing and able to extend their lines far into the suburbs of our great cities, and to establish them in hundreds of towns of moderate size which could not support horse railways. The economy and other advantages of electricity have made possible, too, the modern "interurban railway," the importance of which as an economic and social factor may be roughly judged by the fact that, in 1902, more than 7,500 miles of electric trackage lay outside the limits of incorporated municipalities and urban communities. The natural result of the increased facilities has been an enormous growth of the traffic of the street and electric lines. They carried 2,023,010,202 fare passengers in 1890 and 4,774,211,904 in 1902. Besides the fare passengers, there were in the latter year more than a billion transfer passengers,

as against a mere fraction of that number in 1890. The average passenger gets a longer ride for his money to-day than he did fifteen years ago, to say nothing of the greater speed and greater comfort which electricity has brought. It is, indeed, impossible to overestimate the importance of the service rendered to the people by the street railway, particularly in our great urban communities. Without cheap and quick transportation, the overcrowding of the population in our huge cities would long ago have become intolerable. The census statistics show that much the greater part of the increase in urban population during recent years has been spread over the outlying areas, the accessibility of which depends mainly on the street railways. Side by side with this dispersion of residences has come, largely through the aid of the same agency, a marked and advantageous concentration in the location of business establishments of all classes.

But, greatly as the people have benefited by the introduction of electric traction, its economies have been still more beneficial to the street-railway companies. They have not reduced their fares in any proportion to the saving in expense. Street-railway service is, indeed, worth to us more than we have to pay for it, but people are yet properly asking whether we have to pay for it more than it fairly costs. No other feature of the recent census report will draw so much public attention as the statistics bearing upon the question of the reasonableness of fares, although the report itself, as befits a census investigation, presents no direct conclusions on this subject.

## FARES NOT LOWER IN LARGE THAN IN SMALL CITIES.

It goes almost without saying that an increase in the population of a city should reduce the cost of carrying passengers, and that it should cost less to carry a passenger in a great city than it does in a small town. As a matter of fact, however, there has been no lowering of fares in most of our great urban communities for several decades, and the fares in the largest cities are usually as high or higher than those in small places. In none of our cities of more than five hundred thousand people is the prevailing charge of street railways other than five

cents. On the other hand, in several cities of second rank, such as Washington, Detroit, and Indianapolis, tickets for six rides are sold for twenty-five cents, part of the Detroit system, in fact, selling eight tickets for that sum. In Columbus, seven tickets may be had for twenty-five cents, and in many much smaller towns six or seven rides are given for that price. It would seem that if such fares could be made profitable in these places, they would be still more profitable in cities like New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Boston, Baltimore, and St. Louis.

#### GREATER DENSITY OF TRAFFIC IN LARGE CITIES.

The immense influence of large population in increasing the density of street-railway traffic appears clearly from the census statistics. In cities of more than 500,000 people, designated as cities of the first class, the number of street-railway rides in 1902 was equal to an average of 239 for every man, woman, and child. In cities of the second class, with from 100,000 to 500,000 inhabitants, the average number of rides *per capita* is 185 yearly; in those of the third class, with from 25,000 to 100,000 people, 108; in the still smaller fourth-class cities having street railways, only 68. In other words, the dweller in a municipality of the first rank rides three and one-half times as often as the dweller in a town of less than 25,000 inhabitants.

Every mile of track in first-class cities carried 446,527 fare passengers in 1902.\* The Interurban (now the New York City) system in New York received no less than 1,434,088 fares per mile, and the Philadelphia system 685,235. The number of passengers per mile of track decreases rapidly with population, till in towns of the fourth class the average is only 95,204 per mile, or barely one-fifth as many as in the largest cities. Exceedingly important in reducing the operating expense per passenger in the great municipalities is the fact that cars earn more fares per mile traveled by them than is the case in smaller places. The average number of fare passengers per car mile run is 4.9 in cities of the first class, 4.1 in those of the second class, 3.7 in those of the third class, and 3.3 in those of the fourth class. Several great companies in New York, Philadelphia, and other large cities carry from  $5\frac{1}{2}$  to 7 passengers per car mile.

Note now how these differences in the density

of traffic affect the financial results of street-railway operation in the several classes of cities. In urban centers of more than 500,000 people, the gross operating earnings were \$21,982 per mile of track in 1902; diminishing rapidly with population, they become only \$4,872 in towns of less than 25,000 inhabitants. For every mile traveled by the cars in cities of the first class the earnings average 23.8 cents, as compared with 20.6 cents in cities of the second class, and only 16.6 cents in those of the fourth class. Chiefly because of the higher wages paid in the largest cities, the operating expenses per car mile are somewhat greater than elsewhere; but they exceed the expenses per car mile in the smallest towns by only 17 per cent., while the gross earnings are 43 per cent. more for every mile run.

#### OPERATING EXPENSES AND NET EARNINGS IN LARGE AND SMALL CITIES. V

All this means, of course, that it costs decidedly less to carry a passenger in the metropolis than in the small town. The average operating expense per fare passenger in cities of the first class is almost exactly  $2\frac{3}{4}$  cents; the margin between this expense and the average fare, representing chiefly return on capital invested, is 2.03 cents per passenger. In cities of the second class, the expense per passenger is about the same and the margin is 2.2 cents. In towns of the third class, on the other hand, the average operating expense per passenger is 3.15 cents and the average margin 1.7 cents, while in places of less than 25,000 inhabitants the expense rises to  $3\frac{1}{2}$  cents, and the margin between fare and expense falls to 1.3 cents. Most significant of all, however, are the statistics of net earnings, representing the difference between gross earnings and expenses of operation. In the largest cities, the net earnings of the electric surface railways average \$9,572 per mile of track; in those of the second class, \$6,429; in those of the third class, \$2,866; and in those of the fourth class, \$1,519.

#### WOULD A THREE-CENT FARE PAY THE COMPANIES?

The question of the reasonableness of fares has to do primarily with that part of the charge which constitutes the profit of the investors. We may observe at the outset that the uniform three-cent fare, which is so widely advocated nowadays, would be unremunerative in most even of the largest cities. If to the operating expenses of the railways in urban centers of more than half a million people be added taxes, at the present rates, the sum is already a trifle more than three cents. Nor could it be expected that a reduction of fares to three cents would in itself,

\* This figure, with others hereafter presented, unless otherwise indicated, applies only to the most typical class of railways, — namely, electric surface lines operating during the entire census year, and having no commercial lighting plants in connection with their railway business. With these railways are necessarily included a few which operate some elevated track, and which use horse or cable power in part.



by increasing traffic, sufficiently lower the average cost of carrying a passenger as to leave, ordinarily, a reasonable margin of profit. For, in all probability, five-sixths of the present patronage of the street railways is so nearly compulsory in character that it would not be affected by a change of fares, while that traffic which may be attributed to mere pleasure or convenience is so comparatively small that to double or treble it would increase the total business by only a fraction. Undoubtedly, however, so marked a reduction of fares as from five to three cents would considerably stimulate traffic and serve to reduce the cost of operation per passenger in some measure. Moreover, it must be remembered that there are several railway companies which, by their peculiarly favorable conditions, are able to carry passengers at an operating cost of less than two and one-half cents, and for such railways a three-cent fare might possibly bring an adequate return to capital.

#### HEAVY CAPITALIZATION OF STREET RAILWAYS.

If the capitalization of street-railway companies represented no more than their actual cash investment, there would be no ground for complaint regarding fares. The returns on the outstanding securities are in most cases moderate, and often exceedingly low. For electric surface railways in cities, excluding interurban lines, the net earnings, after deducting taxes, were equal, in 1902, to only 4.7 per cent. on the net capital stock and funded debt of the companies. But the question is, What percentage do the net earnings bear to the true investment which lies back of capitalization?

The street and electric railways of the country have stocks and bonds outstanding in the huge sum of \$2,308,282,099. For the electric surface railways, without lighting plants, the net capitalization, deducting for duplications and for investments in other than railway property, is \$1,719,064,409, which is an average of \$92,114 for every mile of track. The street railways have a capitalization far larger in proportion to their trackage than the steam railroads, the average net capitalization of the latter being only about \$36,000 per mile of track.\* A remarkable difference in the capitalization of street railways appears as among the various classes of cities. In urban centers of more 500,000 inhabitants, every mile of track, on the

average, is made the basis of no less than \$182,775 of stocks and bonds. For cities of the second class, the average capitalization is \$107,103 per mile; for those of the third class, \$53,918; and for those of less than 25,000 inhabitants, \$33,754.

Such figures as these, beyond question, indicate great overcapitalization. No one can believe that the street railways of the United States have cost more than two and one-half times as much per mile of track as the steam railroads. Though the railways in the large cities, with their superior roadbed and more extensive equipment, have cost much more per mile than those in small towns, it is impossible that they should have cost six times as much. The fact that the net-earnings of the companies in cities of the first class are six times as much per mile of track as those in towns of the fourth class coincides with the common belief that the capitalization of street railways has been based on earning capacity rather than on cost.

#### SUGGESTIVE COMPARISONS OF CAPITALIZATION.

The wide differences in capitalization between railways of essentially similar characteristics and operating under similar conditions are also highly significant. A common comparison which, though not quite fair, is immensely instructive, is drawn between the railway companies of Massachusetts and those of other States. In Massachusetts, especially since 1894, the issue of securities by public-service corporations has been carefully regulated by the State authorities, and, though there is some overcapitalization, it is comparatively moderate. The average net capitalization of all the street railways of that commonwealth in 1902 was \$39,067 per mile of track, as compared with \$92,114 for the electric surface railways of the entire country. The excellent system of Boston and vicinity, which includes sixteen miles of elevated structure, is capitalized at \$97,353 per mile, the surface lines alone having about \$80,000 of securities per mile. These figures contrast strikingly with those for the street railways of Baltimore, \$182,009 per mile; of Jersey City, Newark, and adjoining cities, \$220,383; of Philadelphia, \$165,085; of Pittsburg, \$185,170; or of St. Louis, \$198,647 per mile. In all of the cities mentioned, the street railways are wholly of the common type, with surface tracks and overhead trolleys, and in none of them is the system more efficient, or more expensive in style of construction, than that in Boston.

Another comparison may be made between the railways of the city of Washington and the New York City Railway (formerly the Interur-

\* This figure must not be confused with that presented in the reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The latter is based upon length of line (first main track) only, and it takes no account of the great duplications due to the ownership of the securities of railroads by other railroad companies.

ban). Both systems have about the same proportion of the expensive underground-trolley construction. The Washington lines have securities amounting to \$186,416 per mile of track. Heavy stock-watering accompanied the railway consolidations in Washington, yet this capitalization is only a little more than one-third as great as that of the New York company and its subsidiary lines (excluding the Third Avenue system), which amounts to \$494,399 per mile. Many other equally marked differences in capitalization could be pointed out. Without careful study of local conditions, it is impossible to draw precise conclusions regarding the comparative cost of railways, but there is no doubt that many of the differences in capitalization bear no relation to cost.

#### FAMILIAR INSTANCES OF STOCK-WATERING.

It would require a volume to present the mass of facts which have been brought to light during recent years with regard to the overcapitalization of scores of individual street-railway companies. It is well known that many such companies have openly offered large bonuses of stock to purchasers of their bonds; often, indeed, railways have professedly been constructed wholly from the proceeds of bonds. The history of the consolidations and reorganizations by which the railway systems of most of our great cities have been welded together is replete with evidence of stock-watering. The new companies which have taken over existing lines have often added large amounts of securities without in any proportionate measure adding to the actual investment. Sometimes, as in New York, Philadelphia, and Pittsburg, the process of combination and reorganization has been repeated again and again, the stocks and bonds becoming more inflated at each turn.

#### ENGINEERS' ESTIMATES OF COST OF CONSTRUCTION.

The most common method of criticising the capitalization of street railways is by comparison with estimates of engineers regarding cost of construction, or with known figures of cost for individual roads. Many erroneous conclusions have been drawn from such comparisons. The wide differences in the character of track, and in the quantity and quality of equipment, as well as the differences in cost at different periods of time, have often been overlooked or underestimated. A careful study of the most trustworthy of the many published estimates of cost, however, will show that in every case they are far below the capitalization of a large majority of the railways of the character to which the estimates apply.

This is true, for instance, of the estimates made in 1902 by Mr. Bion J. Arnold, one of the leading electrical engineers of the country, regarding the value of the street railways of Chicago and the cost of reconstructing them. These estimates, submitted in a report to the Chicago City Council, were beyond question liberal. The general level of wages and prices of materials at the time was decidedly higher than the average since 1890.

One of Mr. Arnold's estimates is for track laid with six-inch rails, weighing 78 pounds per yard and resting on wooden ties with earth foundations—a common construction such as prevails in many medium-sized cities. The cost of the rails is put at \$5,025, and the total cost for ordinary track at \$10,182. For the "special work" at street intersections and crossings, Mr. Arnold allowed an amount equal to an average of \$4,000 per mile for all the track. This is liberal even for large cities, and is much in excess of the cost of special work in places of moderate size, where the systems are less complicated. Adding 10 per cent. to the other items for engineering and administration of construction, the total cost of the track alone was brought to \$15,600 per mile (single track). The most common style of track in Chicago, according to Mr. Arnold, would cost slightly more than this. The cost of overhead trolley construction was estimated at \$4,050 per mile for each track where the construction spans a double track. To the costs thus far mentioned must, in cities, be added that of paving the track between the rails. Asphalt pavement eight feet wide, at \$2.80 per square yard, requires \$12,880 per mile. This would give, for the style of track under consideration, an aggregate cost of \$32,530 per mile, exclusive of equipment.

Many railways in the larger cities have heavier rails and stronger foundations than were covered by this estimate. Another calculation of Mr. Arnold was based on the very best modern construction, with 9-inch 120-pound rails, laid on concrete beams. The style of construction here provided for is decidedly superior to that of the greater part of the trackage in cities of the first class. Such track, with asphalt paving and overhead trolley construction, was estimated to cost \$40,985 per mile.

To each of these estimates must be added the cost of power plant, barns, cars, and other equipment. The ratio of the cost of these elements to that of roadbed is much higher in the great cities than in small towns or on interurban railways. From Mr. Arnold's figures we may roughly estimate that the cost of reproducing the electric stations, buildings, machinery, rolling stock,

tools, etc., of the electric part of the two leading systems of Chicago would amount to about \$27,000 per mile of its electric tracks.

TROLLEY SYSTEMS CAPITALIZED AT ABOUT THREE TIMES THEIR COST.

According to these estimates, then, the total cost of a new electric railway system, of the prevailing Chicago type, or of the type which is common in some other large cities, in 1902 would have been about \$60,000 per mile of track, while for a system of the highest modern type, with overhead trolleys, the cost would have been about \$68,000 per mile. These figures far exceed the cost of the simple and scantily-equipped systems in small towns and of most interurban lines. Still another estimate submitted by the same engineer placed the cost of track construction for the underground-trolley system at \$94,181 per mile, while the cost of equipment would raise the total for this style of construction to perhaps \$125,000 per mile.

It is probably safe to conclude, in view of the liberality of these estimates, that the present electric surface railways in our cities of more than 500,000 population—including even the small amount of elevated, cable, and underground-trolley track owned by railways which operate chiefly on the surface with overhead trolley—could be completely reproduced in their present style at a cost of not more than \$60,000 per mile of track. The average capitalization of these railways is \$182,775 per mile.

RECONSTRUCTION OF OBSOLETE EQUIPMENT.

We must not, to be sure, overlook the fact that many of our railway companies have spent large sums in reconstructing properties which the swift progress of the art had rendered obsolete. The horse-railway trackage and equipment of fifteen years ago had to be thrown away almost *in toto*. The costly cable systems were also largely consigned to the scrap-heap. Not a little even of the inferior roadbed and equipment of the earlier electric lines has had to be partly or wholly replaced. Such destruction of capital—we can scarcely call it waste, since it is the incident of progress—has been particularly conspicuous in the larger cities, in which the capitalization of railways now appears most excessive. Street railway apologists, however, frequently exaggerate the losses thus suffered. According to the census of 1890, the "cost of construction" of all the surface street railways then existing was only about \$300,000,000. "Cost of construction," in street-railway balance-sheets, is almost always made approximately to equal capitalization, and has little to do with

cash investment. The companies in 1890, as now, understood the art of stock-watering, and \$200,000,000 is a liberal estimate of the total actual investment in surface railways at that time. The subsequent expenditures upon properties which have since been replaced were probably fully offset by the present value of properties which were in existence in 1890, plus the salvage where they were reconstructed. There is no reason to suppose that much more than one-tenth of the present total capitalization of street railways could be explained by the investment in obsolete plant and equipment, and the proportion may be considerably smaller.

ALLOWANCE FOR DEPRECIATION.

This reference to outlived investment brings us to the difficult subject of allowance for depreciation as an element in street-railway charges. Railway managers ordinarily claim that at least 5 per cent. on their investment should be allowed yearly for depreciation, and some put the allowance as high as 10 per cent. As a matter of fact, American street-railway companies have almost never made systematic appropriations for depreciation out of their earnings. This neglect has greatly complicated the question of over-capitalization and of reasonable fares.

There are two wholly distinct forms of depreciation. The first is that due to the wearing out of the plant; the second, that due to improvements in the art which render the plant obsolete, or to the outgrowing of the capacity of the equipment before it is worn out. The first kind of depreciation can be calculated with reasonable accuracy, the second cannot. It should be observed, however, that, in the case of many street railways, much of the depreciation due to the wearing out of property is covered by maintenance expenditures charged as part of operating expenses. For the street railways of the country as a whole, the expenditures for maintenance in 1902 amounted to fully one-fifth of the total cost of operation. Many companies charge to maintenance the cost of new cars, or even that of relaying entire sections of track. So far as this is the case, no additional allowance for depreciation needs to enter into fares. At the same time, there are elements in plants, such as engines and dynamos, which cannot usually be replaced in such a gradual manner as they wear out, and a proper allowance for the depreciation of these elements, and of all others which wear out without being replaced from maintenance expenditure, should properly enter into fares. The second form of depreciation above distinguished is such that it can scarcely be covered by maintenance expendi-

ture. It is highly improbable, however, that for the future there should be such revolutionary changes as the substitution of the cable for the horse, or of electricity for the cable and for steam. The idea, recently advanced, that automobiles will replace ordinary street cars, hardly seems well founded in view of the decidedly greater cost of operating and maintaining automobiles, and in view of the advantage, where streets are of sufficient width, in confining part of the traffic to fixed tracks in the center. It seems, therefore, that a very moderate percentage of the value of property would represent a sufficient allowance for the depreciation due to future progress of the art of urban transportation.

The argument of depreciation has been often used in a most juggling fashion with reference to the charges of public-service corporations. The fundamental point is that, if street-railway fares are to be fixed with a view to providing for depreciation, capitalization should also be adjusted to depreciation. A depreciation fund is properly intended to prevent the necessity of capitalizing outlived property. Railway companies should set aside adequate depreciation funds from their net earnings, instead of hastening to pay the earnings all out as dividends, and they should make those improvements which depreciation necessitates out of such funds, instead of issuing more securities on which the people are expected to furnish a return.

It must be admitted that for some time during the later '80's and the earlier '90's, that form of depreciation which is due to the progress of the art was taking place so rapidly that it would have been impossible for most street-railway companies to set aside a sufficient amount from their earnings to cover it. They were justified in increasing their capitalization more rapidly than the value of their property increased. For such companies, however, the proper policy would have been to begin at once the accumulation of *post-mortem* depreciation funds, as it were, in order gradually to reduce their capitalization. And it may be noted that precisely those companies which had lost most heavily through the abandonment of outlived properties were, in most instances, those whose heavy traffic and earnings would best have enabled them to pursue this policy.

It would require a very extended discussion to attempt to arrive at a conclusion as to what

would constitute a reasonable street-railway fare in cities of different population and different conditions. A rough estimate may, perhaps, be hazarded with regard to the average railway in cities of the first rank, though, of course, a fare which would be proper under average conditions would be too low on some lines and too high on others.

#### WHAT IS A REASONABLE FARE?

It has been estimated that \$60,000 per mile of track would cover the cost of constructing and equipping the average surface railway in cities of more than 500,000 inhabitants. A return of 5 per cent. on this investment should be adequate, in view of the fact that there is almost no risk in the street-railway business in a great city. A further allowance of 5 per cent. yearly on the investment should be ample to cover depreciation in all its forms. Interest and depreciation would thus amount to \$6,000 per year for each mile of track. The number of fare passengers carried by surface lines in cities of the first class averages about four hundred and fifty thousand annually per mile, so that  $1\frac{1}{2}$  cents per passenger would suffice for interest and depreciation charges. Adding to this amount the 3 cents required for operating expenses and payments to the public treasury, we have  $4\frac{1}{2}$  cents as a reasonable fare under average conditions. If, instead of 5 per cent., the allowance for depreciation be fixed at 3 per cent.,—at which rate, by compounding, a fund would be accumulated sufficient to replace the entire plant in about twenty years,—a quarter of a cent could be taken off the fare. It is practically certain, in view of the increase of traffic which would follow a lessening of the charge for transportation, that the rate of six tickets for twenty-five cents would, in most large cities, return a fair profit on the capital actually invested. In those cities which, like New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, now demand from the street railways considerable payments for franchise privileges in addition to ordinary taxes, the abandonment of such requirements in favor of lower fares, in accordance with a principle now very generally approved, would render a straight four-cent fare reasonable. A still lower charge would be just in some individual cases, even at the present time; and it is highly probable that, in most great cities, future growth of traffic will make further reductions in fare possible from time to time.







HARVESTING SUGAR CANE NEAR CARÁCAS.

## THE INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL OUTLOOK IN VENEZUELA.

BY G. M. L. BROWN.

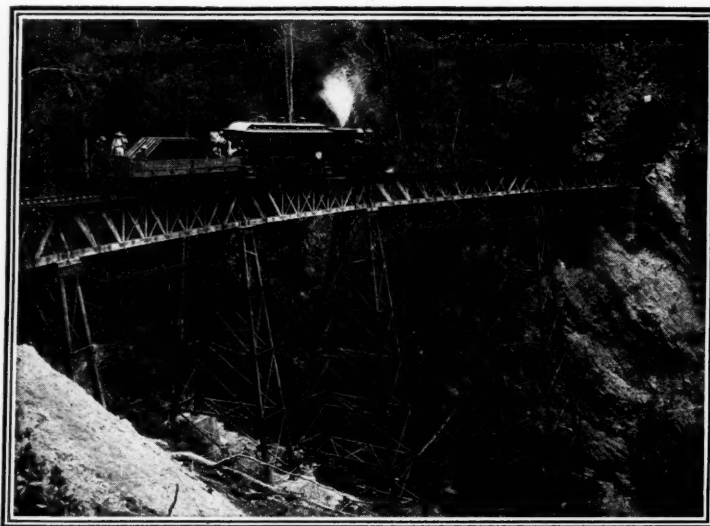
**F**EW countries in modern times have had to face such a serious crisis as had Venezuela in 1902. So complete was her cycle of misfortunes,—a long period of corrupt government, followed by six years of civil war, with the crowning setback of a foreign blockade of her coasts,—that one marvels that the ruin was not absolute. Her reputation, certainly, has suffered irreparably, for Venezuela is now associated in the popular mind with Hayti and certain Central American states,—“the incorrigible republics.” Yet she has suffered, perhaps, quite as much materially, and, notwithstanding two years of peace, many maintain that the country is still retrograding. “I have been here more than thirty years,” recently remarked a German merchant, “and I never knew business to be so bad as it is to-day.”

Perhaps he should have said *his* business; yet the very next person I interviewed, a prominent Venezuelan provision merchant and exporter, made a similar statement, and asserted that trade had steadily declined during the last ten years. He did not expect to see any improve-

ment for three or four years at least. To make matters worse, the former assured me, a new revolution is brewing; foreign complications, with possibly a second blockade, threaten the country, and, not least of her misfortunes, coffee, the chief source of wealth, is down to an unheard-of figure. Meanwhile the government is being conducted on the plunder system, to the immense advantage of the few at the expense of the many.

Others, however, regard this view as extreme. Two years ago, they admit, the country was at a very low ebb financially, but since then there has been a marked improvement, and they point to the fact that the crops are being harvested; that trade is, at least, steady and unrestricted, and that the government, with all its faults, is meeting its current obligations. As to another revolution, when, they ask, was there not talk of a revolution? The indications are that there will be, at least, several years of peace, and peace in Venezuela means prosperity, no matter how bad the government may be.

Although over-optimistic, perhaps, this view



A SCENE ON THE GERMAN RAILROAD, BETWEEN CARÁCAS AND VALENCIA.

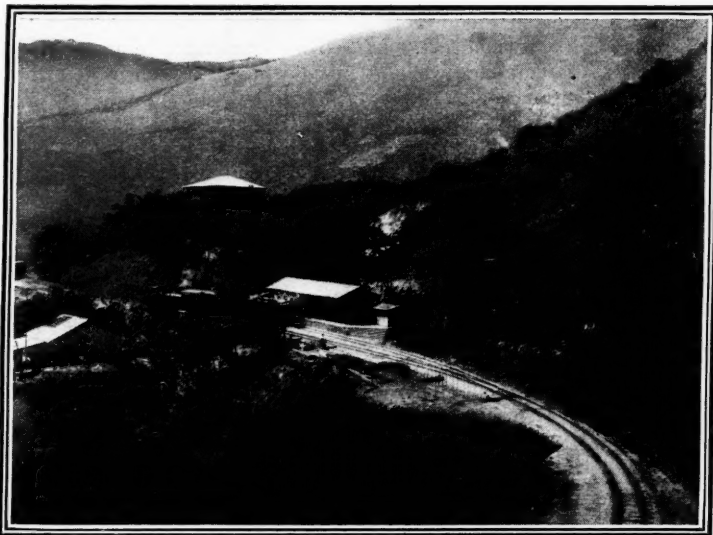
seems, on the whole, the more rational one to take. Unfortunately, trade statistics cannot be appealed to, as there is a four years' gap in the government records. It seems almost inconceivable, however, that business should not have improved since 1902, even omitting from the comparison the period of the blockade. The greater part of the country estates are now marketing their produce and buying supplies; the revolutionists are at home again, and at work (except the few unfortunates in prison), hence they have become honest consumers instead of foragers; the people in the cities are beginning to think oncemore of luxuries; building operations, on a small scale, have been resumed, and contracts for various public works have lately been given out. But it seems idle to talk of prosperity until the price of coffee goes up, and even then there are serious drawbacks to be taken into consideration.

To mention just a few of these, there is the distrust and, one might add, disgust of foreign capitalists, who now refuse even to consider a Venezuelan investment.

There is the granting of monopolies, which the present government has indulged in in a most reckless fashion. There are the excessive duties, import and export, the special taxes, imposts, licenses, and various other devices of officialdom to hamper trade, and despite the contention of the gentleman I have quoted, there is the constant dread of another revolution, which works immeasurable harm both within the country and abroad. Hence, though conditions are apparently better than they were, the situation, on the whole, seems gloomy enough.

#### SIZE AND RESOURCES OF THE REPUBLIC.

Venezuela is the fourth largest republic in South America, and ought easily to rank next to Brazil and Argentina, both in population and in importance. Yet we find that Peru, Colombia, and Chile exceed her in population, and Chile and Uruguay in trade. Venezuela stands sixth in population and fifth in trade, with Peru a close rival, and this notwithstanding her favorable position at the north



A SECTION OF THE CARÁCAS &amp; LA GUAYRA RAILROAD.

(This railroad pays large dividends, and has not had a single fatal accident in its history.)

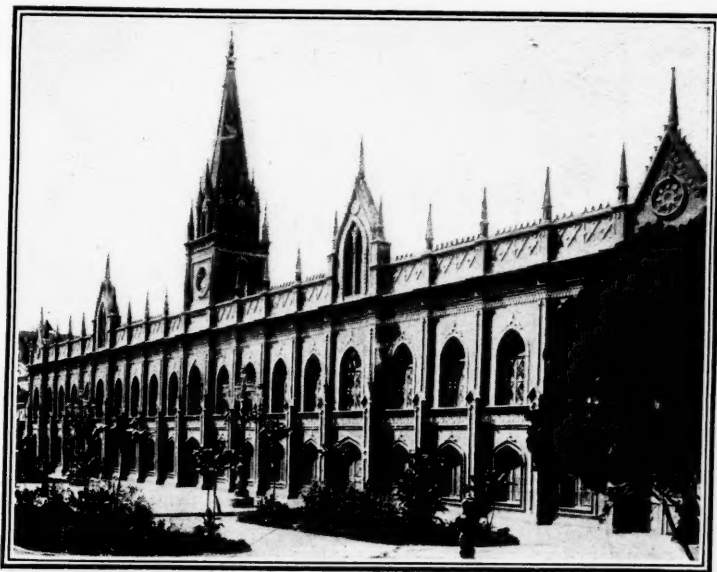
of the continent, the accessibility of the interior through the lake of Maracaibo, and the magnificent river system of the Orinoco.

Comparing Venezuela with our own country, we find that it is equal to all of our Atlantic and Gulf States combined, without Texas, for which we may substitute Wisconsin. And, while only a third of the vast territory is supposed to be capable of cultivation, this would make a farm nearly five times the size of Ohio. Yet the population, including nearly a hundred thousand savages, is considerably less than that of Massachusetts.

In climate and resources, Venezuela is peculiarly favored. Owing to the altitude of her mountain valleys, there is a large temperate area, principally given up to coffee and sugar cultivation, but producing as well a great variety of fruits and vegetables, maize, yams, beans, and peas, mostly for local consumption. On the lowland slopes and along the coasts and rivers are found the famous cacao estates. Tobacco also is grown in this region, and every kind of tropical fruit. Here, too, are to be found such natural forest products as co-paibá, caoutchouc, the tonca bean, and vanilla.

Of the wealth and extent of the forests, no estimate can be made. At the World's Columbian Exposition (I have not been able to get the particulars of her exhibit at St. Louis), Venezuela displayed no less than one hundred and sixty-five kinds of wood, most of which are, as yet, unknown to commerce. Twenty of these were dye and tanning woods, and more than half were reported to be "serviceable for construction, as they are hard, close-grained, and almost imperishable." Yet the annual export of timber from all Venezuelan ports would hardly make one respectable cargo, and is no more than a few days' output from the average Michigan sawmill.

Many of these forests, of course, are almost inaccessible, and despite the government's glowing reports, it is not to be supposed that all the woods they exhibit will be marketable,—at least, not in this generation. Some samples of mahogany, for example, that were shown me were of a very poor grade, coarse and porous, and the



THE UNIVERSITY OF CARÁCAS.

(This institution dates back over three hundred years, and has long been famous throughout Spanish-America.)

price asked in Carácas was higher than the price of the finest quality in Hamburg. The Venezuelan forests will some day yield a valuable output, but at present there is no skill shown in selecting the wood, the facilities for getting it shipped are of the poorest, and the wages of the Venezuelan peon make the price prohibitive.

#### CATTLE-RAISING AND LAND VALUES.

The vast llanos of the Orinoco, which comprise almost half the total area of the country, unless the term be restricted to the plains upon the left bank of the river, are devoted almost exclusively to cattle-raising, an industry that has languished in recent years, owing to unsettled conditions and the practical monopoly of export. The llanos, in fact, are in much the same condition of development as were the Argentine pampas half a century ago, and while larger in area than Texas, they support, probably, less than a sixth the number of cattle, although Texas now produces enormous crops of cotton and corn and other cereals. No other region in the world, healthful, fertile, and accessible as is the Orinoco basin, is in such a backward state, and none could be settled more rapidly were there a stable government and unrestricted commerce.

No better illustration could be given of the stagnant condition of trade and agriculture on the Orinoco than the attempted sale of the Crespo



A COFFEE TRAIN COMING INTO CARÁCAS.

estate, to the west of the Caura River. This property belonged to the late President Crespo, who shrewdly appropriated the finest lands that he could lay his hands upon. It contains more than a million and a half acres, and is situated about one hundred miles above Ciudad Bolívar, being readily accessible to steamers of light draught. The estate produces sugar, tobacco, rice, rubber, tonca beans, and all the food that is consumed on the place. It is well watered, and every stream literally teems with edible fish. It supports large herds of cattle and horses, and these could be greatly increased without exhausting the pasture. Furthermore, there has been quite an outlay in houses, sugar mills, wells, corrals for the cattle, etc. Yet this estate has been offered by the Crespo heirs, who have to sell for political reasons, at a price as low as two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, and is still upon the market, I believe, at that price. On the Paraná, such a property would readily bring ten times as much, and could be sold and resold, mortgaged at a low interest, or divided into small farms on the "colony" system and leased to European immigrants. But therein lies the difference between the Argentine Republic and Venezuela.

It must not be supposed that cattle-raising in Venezuela is confined to the llanos. Excellent grazing lands are found in the whole region bordering upon the Caribbean Sea, and all the northern ports carry on an active trade both in live stock and hides. Here, as on the Orinoco,

unfortunately, local monopolies exist. A few influential men, with the connivance of the government, form a "ring" and force the stock-breeders to sell to them at their own price. If the latter refuse, they find themselves obliged to pay such excessive taxes and shipping fees, with, probably, a few additional fines, that profits are out of the question. Whereupon they wisely come to terms with the "ring." Live-stock raising in the north, however, important as it is becoming, will always remain secondary to agriculture; but whether coffee will continue to be the chief crop, or will be superseded by a more staple product, it would be impossible to predict. Cacao

culture will undoubtedly increase, though the limited area suited to the plant will prevent any overproduction, as has occurred with coffee.

#### CHOCOLATE AND SUGAR PRODUCTION.

Venezuelan cacao, the chocolate of commerce, as is well known, is the best in the world. It has long been the most staple crop in the country, and though the output compared with coffee is insignificant, it yields a handsome profit to the planter,—or rather it would, if the government were not so assiduous in taxing the industry.

Sugar, which, like cacao, is indigenous, yields abundantly; but, fortunately perhaps, very little



INTERIOR OF A CARÁCAS WAREHOUSE.



is raised for export. The home market, however, owing to a prohibitive tariff, is entirely in the hands of the producer, and the housewife, in consequence, has to content herself with a third-rate grade (properly refined sugar cannot be had at any price), for which she pays, at retail, ten cents a pound. The crude brown sugar is compressed into conical loaves called "*papalones*," which retail for five cents a pound, and this is used exclusively by the poorer classes. Here again an apparently highly lucrative industry is so well taxed that the planter gets but a moderate return on his capital, and frequently none whatever.

#### THE PLIGHT OF THE COFFEE-PLANTER.

The position of the coffee-planter, however, is immeasurably worse. The price of coffee has now fallen so low that his only hope is to clear expenses; but with a majority, even this has been impossible, and some of the finest estates, which, a decade ago, brought their owners an annual income of from fifty thousand to a hundred thousand dollars, are now being worked at a heavy loss. By an unfortunate coincidence, the fall in price occurred about the time of the first Hernandez revolution, so that the cost of production went up when the planters were least able to bear the increased outlay. Even at the present time labor is scarce and expensive, the wages of the peon varying from forty to eighty cents a day; while the government, evidently willing to see the whole industry ruined, has rigorously kept up the export duty.

I had an interesting conversation with the owner of an *hacienda*, or estate, situated almost a day and a half's journey (reckoned by pack



WOMEN SORTING TOBACCO IN A CARÁCAS FACTORY.

donkey) from the capital. The cost of raising coffee on his estate and transporting it to Carácas, he informed me, is eleven dollars per hundredweight. The current price in Carácas for coffee of that grade is just ten dollars, so that he loses a dollar on each hundred pounds.

"Are you marketing it, then?" I asked.

"Not at present. I am storing it in the hope of better prices next year. In the meantime, we are giving all our attention to maize. We are making a good profit on this, and are planning to double the crop next season. We are also experimenting, on some lowlands, with cacao, with encouraging results."

"Is your land not suitable for tobacco also?" I asked.

"Yes, we can grow an excellent tobacco, but the government taxes it so heavily that there is no profit in it."

"Venezuela used to export considerable indigo," I continued. "Is none being grown now?"

"No," he replied, with a smile; "I think it must be fifty years since indigo has been raised in Venezuela."

"Would it not pay to try it again?"

He shrugged his shoulders. "We are not an enterprising people, señor, and one never knows



INDIAN FISHERMAN MAKING NETS, NEAR PUERTO CABELLO.

what attitude the government will take toward a new industry."

This is only too true. Instead of fostering its agricultural resources, the government incessantly preys upon them, never, apparently, having heard the story of the goose that laid the golden eggs. When this suicidal policy is changed, whether it be during this century or the next, and the people are encouraged to take up land with the assurance that taxes will be moderate and for legitimate purposes only, Venezuela will astonish the world by the extent and variety of her natural resources.

Whether indigo will be cultivated again or not, cotton will certainly be raised extensively, and tobacco, a very fine grade of which is now produced, will become one of the most important exports. Sugar, also, if the foreign markets are favorable, tropical fruits, cocoanuts, rubber, and, possibly, maize and rice will be largely exported. Olive orchards and vineyards will be planted to supply the home market with oil and wine, and many cereals and fruits of the north will sooner or later be introduced into the temperate upland valleys. Dairy industries, also, will spring up in time, and the large importation of Danish butter and Dutch cheese may even be followed, as was the case in Argentina, by the export to Europe of her own products.

#### MINERAL RESOURCES AND THE SALT MONOPOLY.

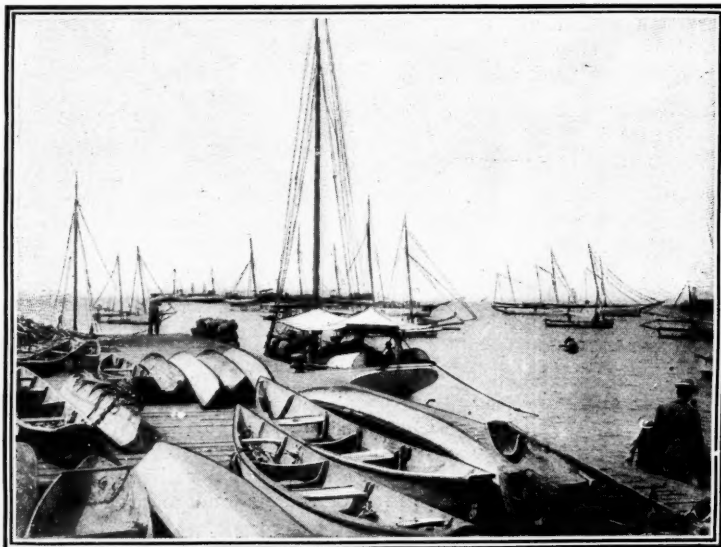
The mineral resources of the republic, with the exception of the famous gold mines of the

Yuruari district and the copper mines lying south of Puerto Cabello, are almost untouched. Nearly all the precious metals are known to exist, and lead, coal, and iron have been found in large and valuable deposits. Yet so exorbitant have the authorities become in their demands that few investors, either foreign or native, could be persuaded to advance a dollar for a mining concession, no matter how glowing the assayer's report might be. On certain ores, for example, on which a tax of one-half per cent. had heretofore been charged, 3 per cent. is now collected by the Castro government, and upon alluvial gold, which was formerly free, 10 per cent. is demanded. Furthermore, new mining codes are issued at uncertain intervals, often containing the most ill-advised regulations, some of which the mining companies find, to their dismay, are retroactive in effect.

Though containing inexhaustible beds of salt which can be dug out and worked at a moderate expense, the Venezuelans pay more for this necessary article, perhaps, than any other civilized nation. It is coarse and unrefined, yet the retail price is from five to ten cents a pound, and even at the mines it costs almost three dollars a hundredweight. At Ciudad Bolivar and other Orinoco ports, where salt is in great demand for the jerked-beef industry, the wholesale price is about four cents a pound. Is it any wonder that the meat is improperly cured, and that smuggling is constantly carried on with Trinidad, where salt can be had for a

shilling a hundredweight? The industry, of course, forms a monopoly, and is under the most ruthless and exacting monopolist in the country,—the government itself.

It is a marvel how the people have been able to exist under the conditions that have prevailed during the past few years. Clothing, shoes, and all manufactured goods sell at exorbitant prices; flour is sixteen dollars a barrel (in Caracas); wines, which are imported mostly from France, cost about five times as much as in Paris; butter is fifty cents a pound; kerosene, fifty cents a gallon; rents are very high, and postage rates are double what they are in the rest of



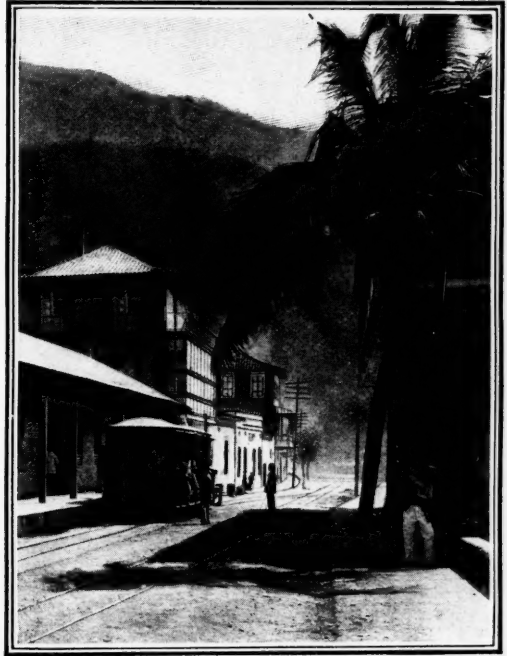
A SCENE ON THE WHARVES AT LA GUAYRA.  
(Showing native Indian dugouts.)

the world. Even country produce, vegetables and fruits, seem dear when compared with the prices prevailing in the neighboring islands of the West Indies, and meat, owing to a special monopoly, throughout the federal district, granted to Vicente Gomez, the vice-president of the nation, reached famine prices shortly after my arrival. This monopoly was so unpopular, however, that it has since been canceled.

#### PERENNIAL "HARD TIMES."

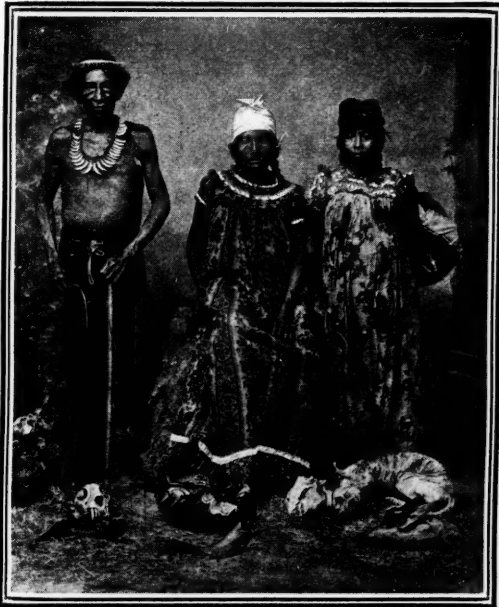
The result of such high prices, of course, is that the people live badly. They wear inferior clothing, they eat inferior food, they regard as luxuries what the average American workman would demand as a necessity. The houses are no longer kept in good repair, the interior furnishings are shabby; everything bears testimony to "hard times." "It seems like a different country since the days of Guzman Blanco," is a remark one hears constantly repeated.

I have traveled considerably in Spanish-America, but never have I beheld such a shortsighted policy in force as that of the present administration in Venezuela. General Castro's watchword when he first assumed the presidency was "Down with monopoly," yet never since the overthrow of Spain have such ruinous monopolies been created. Taxation, also, has probably exceeded anything before known on the continent, yet the funds are applied to few useful



A STREET SCENE IN LA GUAYRA.

(Showing the steam tram that runs to Macuto.)



CARIB INDIANS OF THE ORINOCO REGION.

purposes. The many government salaries are paid,—promptly I am told. A small allowance is made to education, the claims awarded by the Hague court to the three European powers are being steadily reduced, the army consumes a large share of the revenue, and vast sums, of course, are misappropriated. Were even a fraction applied to the roads, which are in a deplorable condition, to the construction of railroads, bridges, and wharves, to the maintenance of the public buildings, which are rapidly falling into decay, and to experiments in agriculture, one would be less inclined to condemn the administration.

Yet it must be remembered that a country generally gets the kind of government it deserves. General Castro has, at least, succeeded in preserving order and making himself feared. Moreover, he has promised a speedy reduction of taxes, and maintains that they were necessary to defray the cost of putting down the last revolution. He is, of course, a military man, not an administrator; but it must be admitted that he has surrounded himself with some able men, one of whom, General Velutini, is now in Europe endeavoring to arrange for the consolidation of the entire national debt.

CARACAS, VENEZUELA.



A VIEW OF THE CENTER OF THE BURNED DISTRICT, SHOWING ONE OF THE NEWLY WIDENED STREETS, NEW OFFICE AND STORE BUILDINGS, AND FIREPROOF BUILDING BEING REPAIRED.\*

## BALTIMORE, ONE YEAR AFTER THE FIRE.

BY DAY ALLEN WILLEY.

"FROM what we hear, there is not much left of Baltimore," was the way the editor of one of the metropolitan magazines put it, in declining an article of a local character he had requested the writer to prepare just before the disaster of February, 1904.

Where the whirlwind of heat and flame had reached, little was left. In one hundred and forty acres of the heart of the city stood a few skeletons of office-buildings and tottering fragments of walls. For block after block, only heaps of brick and piles of broken and twisted metal covered the sites of stores and warehouses, and the streets on which they stood, to such an extent that even the highways could not be distinguished. Out of thirteen hundred and forty-three structures of all kinds, actually less than a half-dozen were so little damaged as to be fit for occupancy. Over a thousand were literally razed to the ground; the walls of most that remained were so weakened as to be unfit for further use. The huge metal-framed "fireproof" office-buildings were mere shells, so completely fire-swept that practically everything inflammable was consumed. The exact proportion of their injury, as determined by the insurance appraisers, ranged from 54 to 74 per cent. of their value. In other words, over half of the material each contained was a total loss.

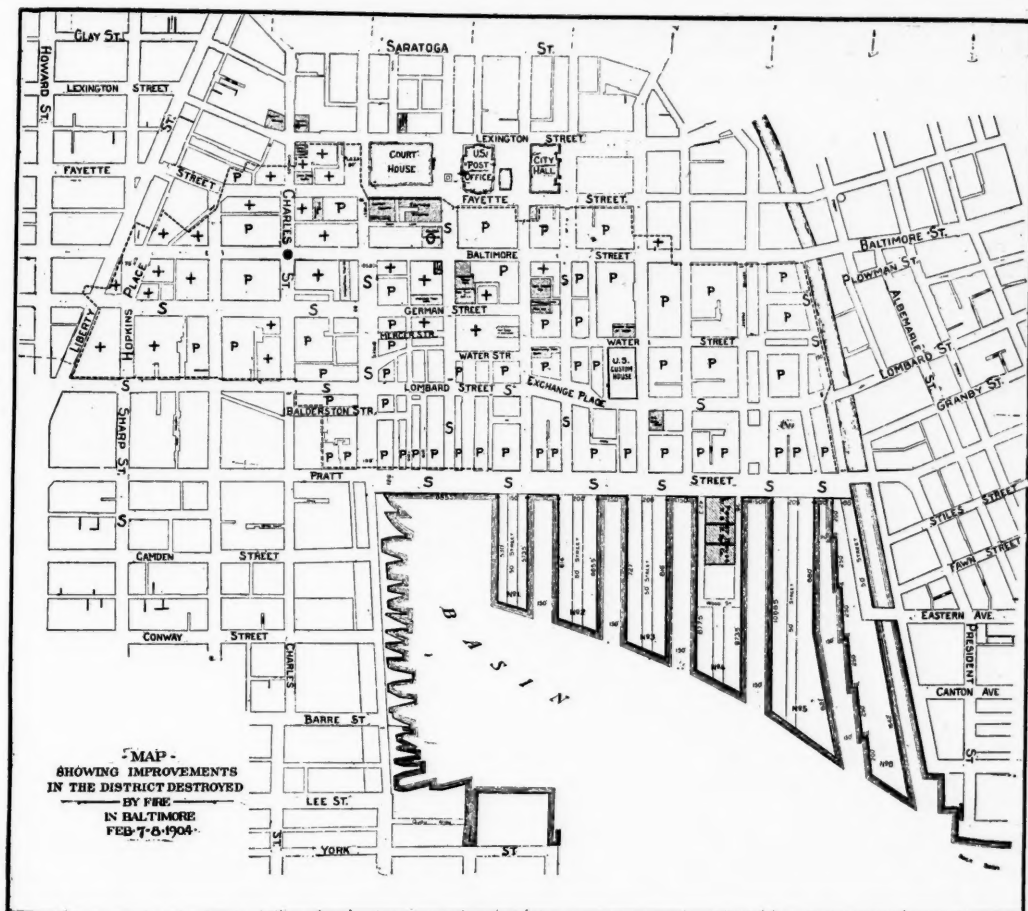
As in other large cities, the tendency in Balti-

more has been to center a certain kind of business in a particular locality. Thus, most of the wholesale shoe-dealers were so concentrated. The dry-goods jobbers could be found in the same neighborhood. The wholesale millinery establishments were side by side. The extensive dealers in men's clothing, with one or two exceptions, were also "colonized," and several of the largest clothing manufacturers in the United States were within a stone's-throw of one another. Baltimore had its financial district, centering about German Street—the Wall Street of the South. The principal office-buildings stood within an area of two squares. Naturally, the greater number of banking institutions were situated in or near the financial section. When the flames of the conflagration had died away to smoking embers, and the people had become calm enough to form a partial estimate of the extent of the disaster, they realized that the jobbing trade had suffered most severely,—stores and stocks of the great majority of the wholesale merchants had been destroyed, or damaged so as to be worthless. The financial district was simply obliterated, with the exception of two or three banking-houses. Nothing of value was left on the mercantile streets leading to the wharf front. But two office-buildings, and those of small size, were untouched. The main portion of Baltimore Street—the Broadway of the city—was in ruins.

Few amid the thousands who saw the havoc which had been wrought ventured to predict

\* The pictures accompanying this article are from photographs, copyrighted 1904, by D. A. Willey, Baltimore.





MAP OF THE BURNED DISTRICT, PREPARED BY THE TOPOGRAPHICAL SURVEY OF BALTIMORE CITY.

[•] Corner of Charles and Baltimore streets, the business center of the city. [----] Boundaries of burned district. [•] Blocks where all sites have been rebuilt or contracts let for buildings. [P] Blocks partly rebuilt. [S] Streets widened. Scale 300 feet to inch.)

that the city would ever recover from it. After a partial estimate had been made of the loss from a monetary standpoint, the figures were of such proportions that the pessimists had ground for their statements that Baltimore would drop out of the list of greater American communities and take its place among those of minor importance,—that its diminished resources would lead to a decline both in business and in population. As is usually the case at such a time, the hurriedly compiled accounts of the disaster in many instances grossly exaggerated its extent. But the statistics of such authorities as the insurance adjusters, agents of large estates, and other experts in realty were formidable enough. They proved beyond question that not less than \$25,000 000 worth of buildings were totally or par-

tially destroyed, allowing \$1,500,000 for salvage. The goods, machinery, furniture, and other material they contained were destroyed or damaged to the extent of \$55,000,000, allowing for the small quantity rescued. On this property, insurance to the amount of \$35,000,000 had been placed, leaving a balance of \$45,000,000 not covered by premiums. To it, however, must be added the income from rental of the burned structures. While a precise estimate cannot be made, an idea of its extent is shown by the fact that a single corporation acted as agent for property which rented for \$200,000 annually. As none of the new buildings on it was ready for occupation until a year later, the amount mentioned has been lost by its clients, besides the sum not covered by insurance. In

fact, the decrease in revenue from this cause is believed by real-estate agents to have aggregated fully \$20,000,000, making a total net loss of \$65,000,000. But the most serious question of all was the business outlook for the merchants whose establishments were in ruins. What could be done to serve their customers? What could they do to keep their patronage from being distributed elsewhere? It may be said here that the money represented by orders which could not be filled ran into millions of dollars; but as will be noted hereafter, the falling off in business was merely temporary.

#### TEMPORARY BUSINESS QUARTERS.

Thus crippled, the people were left to work out their own future, for after the fire companies, who had responded from neighboring cities in answer to the call for help, had departed, no other aid was requested. Long before the flames had shot up for the last time, the streets adjacent to the burned area had been invaded by the store and office hunter. Mansions, historic in their associations, were turned into counting-rooms and banking-houses. Even their attics, where the old colored caretakers had lived since the Civil War, were renovated and rented to the homeless business and professional folk. Such was the demand for accommodations that anything with a roof was eagerly secured. A colored high school was converted into quarters for one of the principal trust companies; another was turned into a temporary office-building, its recitation rooms occupied by attorneys, insurance men, real-estate agents, and stock brokers. So few warehouses remained that a wholesale grocery firm leased a church edifice and took the minister's study for its office. One of the armories was turned into a dry-goods store. The largest savings-bank in the city moved into the courthouse. Thus, the fire proved an unexpected blessing to real-estate owners in the vicinity, who expended their means liberally in repairing and enlarging their buildings.

#### STREET AND WHARF BETTERMENTS.

With a place where one could at least hang out his sign and receive his mail, the next step was to set about rebuilding. Then the opportunity for making civic improvements presented itself. Some of the principal thoroughfares were narrow and crooked—why not widen and straighten them? It was recognized that the spread of the fire in one direction had been checked by the fireproof courthouse and the spacious square or plaza which adjoined it on the east. If another plaza were created on the west side, it would form an additional safeguard

against possible conflagrations in future and an ornamental setting to the courthouse itself, which is one of the most artistic public edifices in America. The streets adjacent to the docks could be broadened to relieve the congestion of traffic, and the suggestion was also made that a series of wharves and warehouses could now be afforded which would greatly increase the commercial facilities of the port. It speaks well for the spirit of optimism which prevailed, that the people decided in favor of these and other plans for public betterment, although they mean the expenditure of a large amount of money in addition to the outlay incurred for merely replacing the buildings in the burned area. Baltimore will have paid out fully \$10,000,000 for the improvements referred to, as well as new school buildings, street-paving, and other public utilities, when the plans which its citizens are now executing are completed.

#### AN IMPROVED ARCHITECTURE.

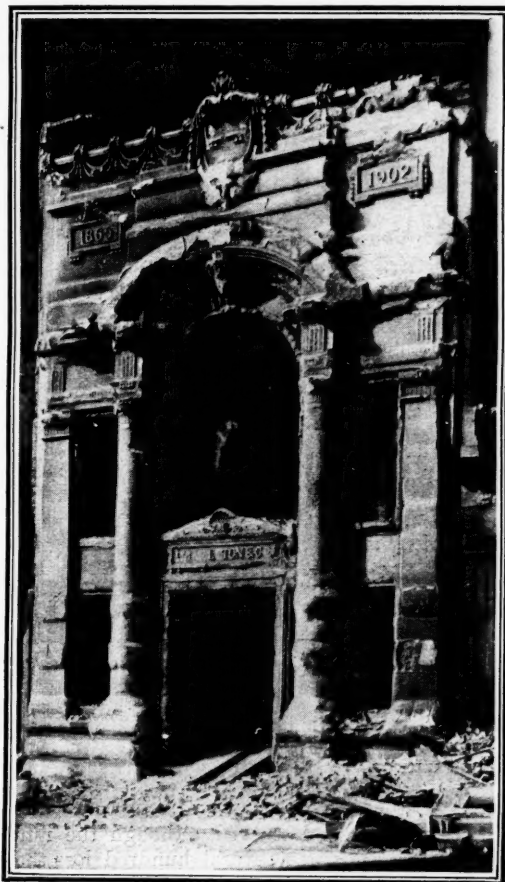
In the work of restoration, the people have made haste slowly, and it is, perhaps, as well. They have given careful consideration to the future, and if any error has been made, it is on the side of conservatism, but they have had expert counsel of the greatest value in their efforts. Naturally, when the extent of the disaster became known outside, here centered the interest of the architect, the builder, and the material dealer, and in a few weeks the city's population received a notable addition. The property-owners had their attention drawn to the latest ideas in the construction and equipment of the store or warehouse. The designs of the country's noted architects were submitted for their decision. The merits of various forms of fire protection were placed before them. In short, if they had been behind the times in knowledge of modern building, they were soon made familiar with it by the energetic agents who invaded the city by the score. While week after week passed, in which the *débris* was being removed and the State and city authorities were dallying over legislation necessary to carry out the public improvements, the real-estate owners were studying the best methods of again utilizing their vacant sites. Consequently, the architecture of the district being rebuilt represents the most recent conception of structures for commercial, financial, and industrial purposes.

It is but just at this point to refer briefly to the faith in the future Baltimore displayed by the newspaper publishers, who were among the first to plan business homes which would not only be suitable for their purposes, but form examples of the city's progress. The *News*, for instance, is

to be provided with an artistic building composed of what is known as ferro-concrete, the walls being literally molded in one piece. The entire space is devoted to the offices and plant, and is lighted, ventilated, cleaned, and all the other mechanism operated by the electric current,—not a particle of steam being generated on the premises. For the *American*, was planned a sixteen-story structure, its massive steel framework faced with stone and ornamental brick. Its dimensions make it one of the most imposing of the group of "sky-scrapers." The publishers of the *Sun* also decided on an elaborate building exclusively for the newspaper, placing it upon a new site, but erecting attractive apartments for offices at its former location. Vying with the press, however, were bankers, managers of estates, and tradesmen, and while, as already intimated, the weeks became months before the army of masons, carpenters, iron-workers, and other artisans began the creation of the newer city, when the work was fairly under way, the magnitude of the operations was such as to dispel any doubt as to the confidence of the capitalist in the future importance of Baltimore. True, here and there can be seen designs which are inferior and discreditable to the neighborhood in which they are situated, but in nearly every instance, from the ruins have arisen or are rising structures equal if not superior in size and quality to those which they replace, for many firms have availed themselves of the emergency to provide room for expansion in business, and in some instances, occupy double the amount of space embraced in their former quarters.

Extremely interesting from a technical standpoint have been the methods of repairing the office-buildings which passed through the baptism of heat and flame.

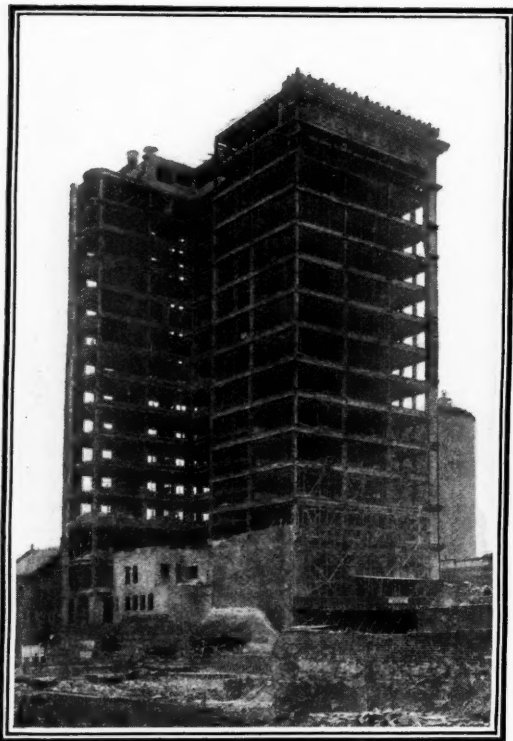
In one instance, the entire interior—with the exception of a single brick partition wall and a few steel girders—had to be replaced, the metal taken out being worthless except as scrap iron. The cost of restoring this building was 60 per cent. of its original value. The Continental—the costliest of the series—was stripped of nearly every particle of material in its walls, leaving bare its steel skeleton, to be given a new covering. The classic marble front of the home of a trust company was so damaged by the heat that it was necessary to remove every piece of it, but the directors did not hesitate to pay for another marble exterior equally as ornate. Such is but one example of the broad, far-seeing spirit that has been shown in making the "newer" city—for it is another city in size that is taking the place of the blackened stretches of brick and mortar.



THE RUINS OF THE NEW BANKING-HOUSE OF  
HAMBLETON & CO.

#### THE PROGRESS OF REBUILDING.

Thus far, we have referred only in general terms to what has been accomplished in the restoration of Baltimore. Fortunately, testimony to verify the statements made is found in the statistics compiled by the insurance adjusters and by the city authorities, while the camera also furnishes reliable evidence which cannot be contradicted. A significant fact is that until July 1, 1904, permission had been given to erect but one hundred and sixty-five new buildings in the vacant district, and in nearly five months from the date of the fire, only thirty in all had been completed. This was largely due to the delay in enacting legislation and the dilatory attitude of public officials. On December 1, 1904, however, permits had been issued for work representing a total value of nearly fifteen million dollars, actually 75 per cent. of the total value



THE SKELETON OF A FIRE-SWEPT BUILDING, FROM WHICH THE EXTERIOR WALLS WERE TORN AWAY.

of the real estate destroyed, although the number of buildings was several hundred less than the number burned. This indicates that the average value of the new ones is considerably greater than that of the old. When it is stated that nearly two hundred contracts had been let up to December 1 for buildings four stories high and upward, a further conception of the scale of operations may be gained. Included in the series of illustrations which accompany this article, however, are several which show the actual condition of various portions of the devastated area immediately after the fire and on November 15 last. Each set of views was taken from the same position, except where it was necessary to move the camera a few feet to prevent the vista from being cut off by the wall of a new building. Since November 15, much of the work shown in a partly finished state has been completed. These photographs indicate that the building operations are of such magnitude that in some instances the more important thoroughfares have been almost entirely restored for commercial purposes.

The activity we have noted means more than

merely the city's recuperation from the fire. Before it culminates, the facilities for business generally will be far greater than were enjoyed before the disaster, despite the fact that a considerable area has been required for the broader thoroughfares and the new wharves, which must be taken from property formerly occupied by buildings. Sites not only for warehouses and stores, but for hotels, are being purchased outside of the burned district itself. In brief, the entire city is being affected and is undergoing a beneficial change. One indication of this fact is shown by the increased value of real estate of all kinds, which has made a notable advance since the work of restoration was begun. Among the illustrations of individual promotion may be cited the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company. Before the fire had been extinguished, business bodies in other cities began offering inducements to the company to move its headquarters elsewhere, the inducements including generous tenders of assistance. It is understood that one community pledged itself to furnish free a site for a building, but all proposals were declined, and as this article is being written, the president of the corporation has made public the statement that it will expend two million dollars in erecting a new home on a site it has purchased in the very center of the city at a cost of five hundred thousand dollars. This means that the two thousand employees constituting the general office force of the railroad in question will remain in Baltimore, and that their yearly wages will continue to be disbursed here. It may be added, that no important firms or companies have removed to other cities by reason of their misfortune.

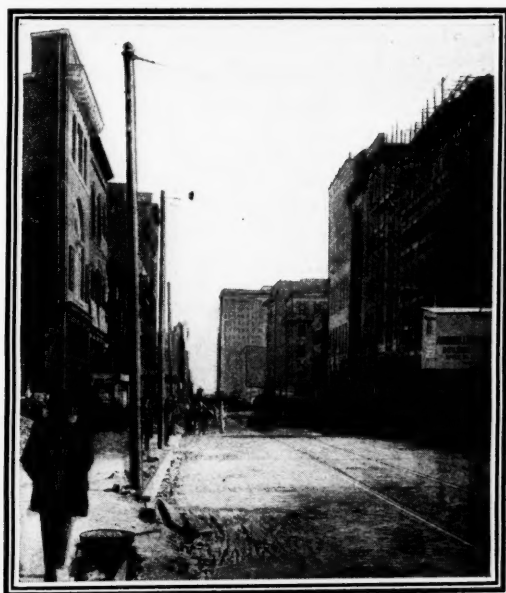
#### NEW HARBOR FACILITIES.

What the public improvements signify in the future commercial expansion of the city can be realized by a brief description of the changes on the water front. At present, steamships carrying five thousand tons of cargo cannot come within a mile of the upper or city end of the harbor, owing to the depth of water and the limited dock space. When the present system is completed, it is expected that the largest transatlantic liners entering this port can moor at the new piers if necessary, so that vessels of ten thousand tons' capacity may be docked within three squares of the business center of the city. In fact, the wharves will be as conveniently and centrally situated as those of any American seaport, and far more accessible than those of some Atlantic ports. They range in length from 550 to 1,450 feet, and in width from 150 to 210 feet, each slip being 150 feet





LOOKING EASTWARD, ON FAYETTE STREET, TOWARD CHARLES STREET, SHOWING WHAT WAS LEFT AFTER THE DISASTER, AND THE CHANGES WHICH HAVE SINCE BEEN MADE. THE NEW STRUCTURES WHICH APPEAR, IN THE PICTURE ON THE RIGHT WILL GIVE THE STREET A FAR MORE SUBSTANTIAL APPEARANCE THAN IT HAD BEFORE THE FIRE.



THE APPEARANCE OF BALTIMORE STREET, THE MAIN BUSINESS STREET OF THE CITY, IMMEDIATELY AFTER THE FIRE, AND NINE MONTHS LATER, SHOWING THE RAPID RESTORATION OF THIS BUSY THOROUGHFARE.

wide. Consequently, at the larger piers four steamships can be easily accommodated at once—two on either side. The streets bordering on the water front are to become commercial avenues 120 feet in width, but the plan of street improvement provides for widths varying from 60 to 150 feet, where in some instances the roadway was barely the width of three wagons abreast.

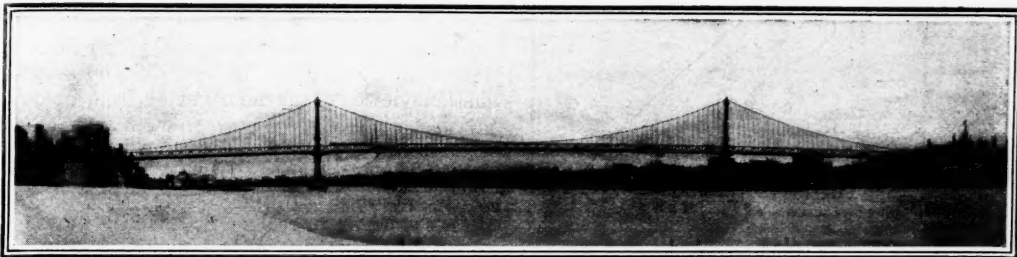
#### THE NEW BALTIMORE AS A BUSINESS CENTER.

To realize the effect of the Baltimore disaster upon the country at large, the position which this city has occupied in commerce, industry, and other forms of activity, as well as in population, must be taken into consideration. In the extent of its manufacturing interests, Baltimore may be compared with the cities of St. Louis and Pittsburg. Prior to the fire, the total amount of capital invested in its various industries aggregated nearly \$150,000,000, with a yearly product valued at nearly \$200,000,000, slightly exceeding Pittsburg. The total amount of capital represented in industries in St. Louis is placed at \$175,000,000, with a product of nearly \$250,000,000. From an industrial standpoint, Baltimore ranked seventh in the list of cities. In population, it is somewhat smaller than Boston, the latest local census showing that it contains nearly if not quite five hundred and sixty thousand population. As a clearing-house city, it stands eighth in the list, but its importance as a seaport is perhaps most notable. For a period of years, more corn has been exported from it than from any other city in the United States, and in point of foreign trade it has occupied third place, during some years exporting more products than any other port, with the exception of New York. While the number of railroads reaching Baltimore is not large, they include three of the most extensive systems in the United States,—the Pennsylvania, the Baltimore & Ohio, and the Wabash.

Undoubtedly, the future possibilities of Baltimore, as an outcome of the facilities with which it is being provided, has aroused much of the widespread interest which is being manifested by outsiders. True, the fire proved to be a benefit from the standpoint of publicity, for it advertised the city far and wide. The community was brought into touch with the country at large, and not merely with the South, as in the past. People in general had their attention called to its location, its broad trade territory, and the extent of its financial, mercantile, and industrial interests, likewise its opportunities as a center for investment, and its attractions—

which are many—as a place for one's home. The great insurance companies of the metropolis, already heavily interested here, were among the first to come with offers to loan money in the burned area, and a part of the restoration has been accomplished with their aid. Instead of the number of business concerns decreasing, it has been increased by the entrance of firms and corporations from outside,—men who observed advantages which the citizens had perhaps overlooked. But the infusion of people and capital has been principally due to the belief that the city is to expand, not contract, and that its progress is assured by the transformation which it is undergoing.

But those who are laboring for a community of greater magnitude and progress than the Baltimore of the past have a substantial foundation for their efforts. Considering the amount of the city's wealth which was absolutely lost through the calamity, it seems marvelous that its credit has been so well sustained. In the space of thirty-six hours, its assets had been depleted to the extent of sixty-five million dollars in value. Yet the resources of the local banking-houses were such and the feeling of confidence so general that no interruption to business was caused, except by the fire itself. In the period which has elapsed not a single failure has been due to it where the liabilities exceeded twenty-five thousand dollars, and the total liabilities of firms who have become insolvent on account of the disaster have not aggregated one hundred thousand dollars. In a general way, Baltimore has always had the reputation of being a rich community. The manner in which it has sustained this blow shows that the reputation is not unmerited. And another remarkable fact is, that its volume of trade is rapidly assuming normal proportions. Not discouraged by the handicap in their relations with their outside patrons, the merchants have made far more earnest efforts than ever before to reach not only the market in the Southern States, but in other parts of the country, and such has been the result of their enterprise that at present the business of the community, as indicated by the transactions of the banks in its clearing-house, is but slightly less than previous to the fire. Even during the ten months ending with November, 1904, the transactions referred to amounted to over nine hundred million dollars, but  $8\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. less than for the same period of 1903, despite the fact that the conflagration occurred in the second month of 1904. During a single week in November, 1904, the clearings actually exceeded those of a year previous.



THE NEW MANHATTAN BRIDGE OVER THE EAST RIVER, NEW YORK, CONNECTING THE BOROUGH OF MANHATTAN AND BROOKLYN.

## MANHATTAN BRIDGE: A LESSON IN MUNICIPAL ÆSTHETICS.

BY G. W. HARRIS.

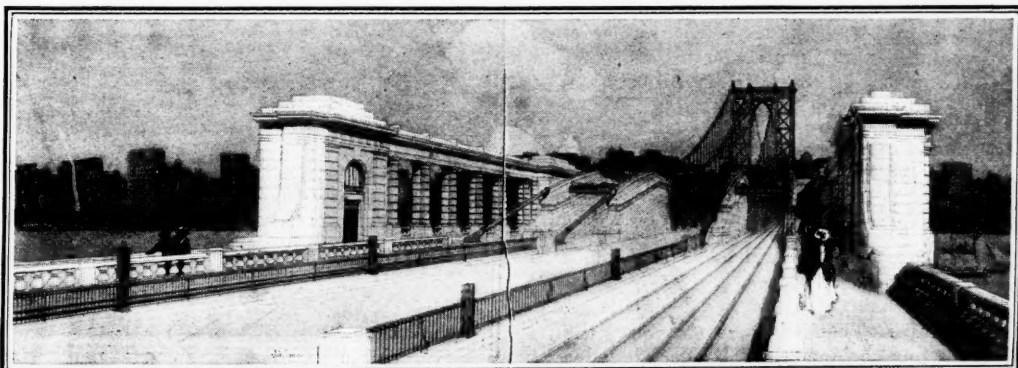
NEW communities are slow to recognize the value of beauty, to realize their own æsthetic needs. Most American cities are so new and have grown so fast that they have found little time for other than utilitarian considerations. But better days are dawning. In the older centers of Europe it has long been insisted upon that beauty and utility must go hand in hand in public works, and that principle of city building is beginning to be applied on this side of the world. A conspicuous and gratifying proof of the awakening is to be found in the strenuous and persistent effort exerted to make the Manhattan Bridge over the East River, in New York, an imposing monument,—effort which has finally met with at least partial success.

The crying physical need of the immense and rapidly growing American metropolis is better transit facilities,—especially between its largest two boroughs, Manhattan and Brooklyn. Sev-

eral years before the twin cities were united under one municipal government, the old slow-going ferries had been found inadequate and the Brooklyn Bridge had been built. But it was not long before that, too, proved insufficient to carry the increasing traffic. It became evident that several bridges would be needed. The second bridge over the East River, known as the Williamsburgh Bridge, was opened in December, 1903. The third, or Manhattan Bridge, it is now promised by the city's Bridge Department, will be built as speedily as possible.

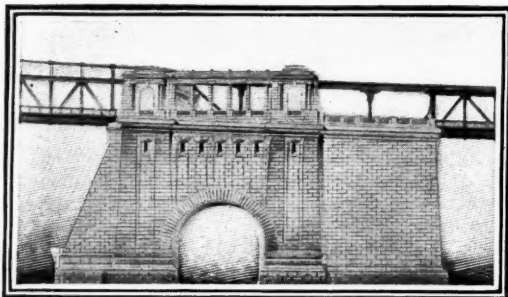
### EVOLUTION OF THE DESIGN.

Concerning this bridge,—whether it should be built at all, and if so, how it should be built,—there has been more discussion than over any other bridge ever projected to span any of the waterways of New York City. It was originally decided upon in 1898, when the Board of Pub-



All of the illustrations with this article from drawings by Jules Guérin.

THE TOP OF THE ANCHORAGE, SHOWING COLONNADE TREATMENT.



THE ANCHORAGE ELEVATION.

lic Improvements authorized the preparation of plans for a bridge to cost \$5,732,000. Plans for a wire-cable bridge were prepared and approved, and work on the piers was begun under the Van Wyck administration. Then the impression became general that the capacity of the projected structure would be inadequate, and as money had not been appropriated for more than the piers, the bridge commissioner under the Low administration discarded the original plans and prepared a design for a structure of larger capacity, substituting eyebar chains for the wire cables, making many other changes, and adding a pleasing architectural embellishment. This design was approved by the Municipal Art Commission, and if carried out, would have given New York a bridge that would compare favorably with the most artistic bridges of the old world, and one that would form a remarkable contrast with the existing East River bridges. But the Board of Aldermen withheld the necessary appropriation, and charges of undue influence on the part of rival bridge-building companies were openly made.

When Tammany Hall again returned to power, in January, 1904, the new bridge commissioner, in turn, rejected the design of the Low administration and revived the original plans, revising them for the sake of enlarged capacity, but retaining the general features of wire cables, steel towers, and a suspended stiffening truss. The aldermen promptly voted an appropriation of \$10,000,000, and on these revised plans the bridge will be built.

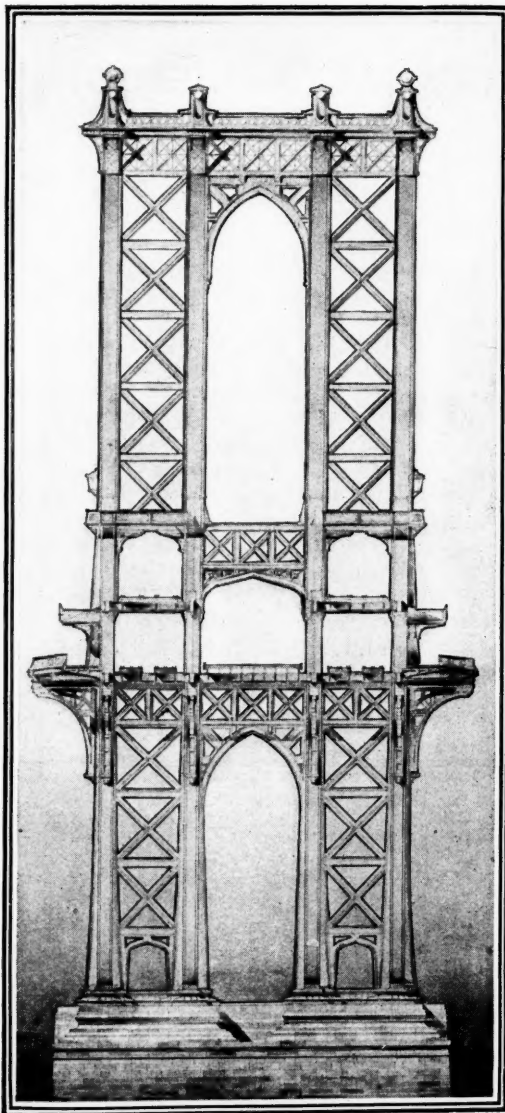
#### LESSONS FROM EARLIER STRUCTURES.

Now, through all this long and acrid squabble one point to the city's advantage has been gained,—conscientious effort has been made to beautify the design.

The old Brooklyn Bridge is a decidedly graceful structure. That it is such was more the result of happy accident than of special endeavor for beauty of effect. Its building was experi-

mental. There was no existing pattern to go by. Yet by the combination of its stone towers and its iron structure in felicitous proportions, it presents a pleasing and a beautiful appearance, whether viewed from the river or from its own roadway.

But when the Brooklyn Bridge had been in use a few years, and had demonstrated its incapacity for the growing traffic needs, bridge engineers began to realize that it is a practical mistake to build the main towers of such a bridge



THE FRONT ELEVATION OF THE TOWERS.

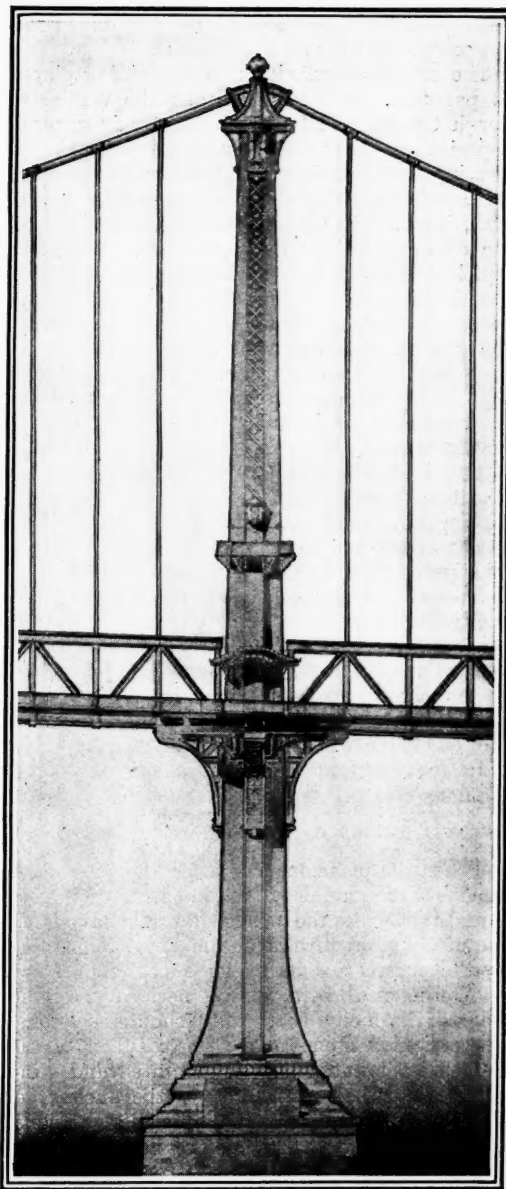


of stone, because the openings in the towers built of masonry must necessarily be so small as to curtail materially the volume of traffic over the bridge. Accordingly, when the Williamsburgh Bridge was built, its towers were made of steel instead of stone. This bridge was designed by a corps of engineers purely for utilitarian purposes, without any thought of æsthetic needs. The result is hideous. This is not to disparage the engineers or their work. The bridge will carry the load required of it. As a piece of engineering and from the utilitarian point of view, it is successful. But it is just about the ugliest structure in New York,—a great, towering, threatening mass of iron, unrelieved by any adornment. Viewed from the river, it is an eyesore; from its own approaches, an ugly monstrosity.

Popular recognition of the ugliness of this bridge and the resultant feeling, crystallizing into indignation in certain public-spirited organizations, have done more than anything else in recent years to arouse the city government to realize that its "business may sometimes best be served by beauty." It has been brought to understand that the city can afford to pay something for a handsome appearance. The demand that the lines of the new Manhattan Bridge should be made as beautiful as possible, consistent with strength, efficiency, economy, and speed of construction, has been so insistent that not even a Tammany commissioner has dared to disregard it. When his engineers had completed their figuring and planning, the design was submitted to Messrs. Carrère & Hastings for architectural treatment. The result, it is believed, has been eminently successful. The work has received the approval of the Municipal Art Commission.

#### DISTINCTIVE FEATURES OF THE NEW BRIDGE.

Manhattan Bridge, which will cross the East River at a point a short distance above Brooklyn Bridge, will complete the extension of Flatbush Avenue, Brooklyn, joining that highway to Canal Street, Manhattan, at a point near the Bowery, and will thus form part of a fine wide thoroughfare from the North River to Prospect Park,—and, indeed, to Coney Island,—really providing the first such thoroughfare from the Hudson to the ocean. It will have a total length, including approaches, of 6,500 feet, a central span 1,470 feet long, and two end spans each 725 feet long (Brooklyn Bridge is 6,000 feet long, with a central span of 1,595 feet; Williamsburgh Bridge, 7,200 feet long, with a central span of 1,600 feet). The new bridge will be 120 feet wide (the width of the Brook-



THE SIDE ELEVATION OF THE TOWERS.

lyn Bridge is 84 feet), and it will carry a vehicular roadway 34 feet wide, two footwalks, and eight railway tracks,—four for trolley cars, and four, on a second deck, for elevated trains. It will be like the old Brooklyn Bridge in that the shore spans of its cables will be "loaded,"—that is, they will carry the roadway. This is not so in the Williamsburgh Bridge, in which

the slightly lessened cost of the structure does not compensate for its hideousness.

The steel towers, although containing about 33 per cent. more material than the Williamsburgh towers, will be much lighter in general appearance. This effect will be secured by treating the central part of the tower as a great open arch. Cutting down through this central arch, it would be possible to take either half of the complete bridge away and leave the other half intact, which would still form a perfect and practicable bridge in itself. Thus, if it should become necessary at some future time to rebuild the bridge, one half of it could be rebuilt at once without impairing the usefulness of the other half. The towers will be constructed on the masonry foundations which are now in place just inside the pierhead line. These are about 70 feet high, and sink 92 feet below high water. The towers will rise 330 feet above the mean high water level.

The cables are to be made of straight wires laid parallel, and will measure 21 inches in diameter. The anchorages will be built of granite, with brownstone and concrete backing. Each will contain more than 60,000 cubic yards of masonry. The structure between the anchorages, including cables, will require about 40,000 tons of steel. The bridge is calculated to sustain a regular load of 8,000 pounds to the running foot, and an emergency load of 16,000 pounds.

#### BEAUTIFICATION OF ANCHORAGES AND TOWERS.

When the plans incorporating the above provisions were submitted to the architects they found that while the needs of traffic precluded the use of stone towers, and made it impossible by that means to obtain any effect of masonry above the roadbed, it was yet necessary, for the sake of harmony, that there should be some expression in stone above the roadbed of the immense amount of masonry required under the roadbed for the construction of the anchorage. The lines of the towers they considered beautiful in themselves as the expression of an economic and mathematical construction, and the main lines of the cables and suspended truss as given by the engineers were pronounced beautiful because expressing the rational and simple solution of the problem from the engineering point of view.

Therefore the architects made the stonework over the anchorages the most important feature of their design. Their endeavor was to utilize the necessary masonry supports for the anchorage saddles in making them a part of the architectural scheme of a colonnade on each side on

top of the anchorage. One of the pavilions of the colonnade on either side is devoted to staircases connecting with the interior of the anchorage, and which will be finally connected with the street. The anchorage is about 225 feet long and 175 feet wide, and the court treatment, 120 feet above the water level, will undoubtedly be impressive. This treatment of the anchorage also makes it possible to obtain extra width at that part of the bridge, and to provide places aside from the stream of traffic where people may stop to rest and get a view of the city and the river. As seen from the street the anchorage itself will be handsome in its simplicity. Only structural decoration has been used. All of the enrichment has been concentrated on that part of the anchorage which comes under the colonnade and which expresses an interior void. That part which carries the real load has been kept simple and massive, in contrast with the other.

Such decoration as has been given to the towers has been concentrated to accentuate the lines of construction. Covered resting-places have been designed here, and their iron and copper hoods will enrich the lines and give a shadow at that point. The towers are crowned with a simple cornice effect, which is kept under the lines of the cable, like the cap of a column under an architrave. This cornice has been made of heavy iron, with a large projection, and all the decorative features have been concentrated in a gallery effect the whole width of the tower.

Thus Manhattan Bridge will be built. With its approaches it will cost the city, it is estimated, about \$20,000,000. The Department of Bridges hopes to have it completed by the end of 1907. While it may be doubted whether the bridge will be the "epoch-making" structure that would have resulted if the plans of the Low administration could have been carried out, there is ample assurance in the design finally adopted that it will be a work of considerable beauty. It has already been said that this will be a great gain to the city,—for aside from its value as a factor for culture and education, as a stimulating and ennobling influence on the city's inhabitants, civic beauty pays directly in monetary return. But the gain is not alone New York's. This metropolis is the gateway to the new world. Every beautiful and imposing public monument erected here is an example in civic pride to all the other cities in the land. More and more, as New York is improved and beautified, it must become the pride and glory of America, as Paris is the crown of France. The gain of a beautiful structure here is the nation's gain also.

## GENERAL STOESSEL, RUSSIAN DEFENDER OF PORT ARTHUR.

**P**ERHAPS the only Russian reputation which has stood the test of the war with the Japanese, in the estimation of the outside world, is that of General Stoessel, the heroic defender of Port Arthur. Now that the defense of the famous fortress has passed into history, the commander of the gallant garrison has become a national hero, whose name will be handed down, in song and story, to future generations.

Anatoli Mikhailovich Stoessel is the subject of conflicting biographies. He is called a Russian, a Swede, a Swiss, a German, a Jew. There is not much to be said of him. Born, July 10, 1848, in St. Petersburg, of a family of Swedish origin,—so much may be said to be known,—he was educated in the Pavlov Military School, in the Russian capital, in the same class with General Kuropatkin, and entered the army in 1864. He served with distinction in the Russo-Turkish War, 1877-78. He was made a colonel in 1889, and a major-general in 1899. The next year he became commander of the Ninth East Siberian Sharpshooters' Brigade. For his service in the campaign against the Boxers, in 1900, he was made a lieutenant-general. In February, 1904, when the war with Japan broke out, Stoessel was appointed commander at Port Arthur, and soon afterward was made commander of the entire army corps ordered to the defense of that fortress. General Stoessel is really a military scientist. He knows thoroughly the engineer's work, as well as chemistry, fortification methods, and sanitary improvements. Russia could not find any better defender for a be-

sieged city. In recognition of his gallant defense, Emperor Nicholas has conferred upon him the title of aide-de-camp to the Czar, and the German Emperor has given him the German order of "Pour le Mérite."

General Stoessel owes his success to his personal qualifications of untiring energy, of thor-

oughness, and of devotion to duty. His talent for administration is pronounced exceptional. While not a favorite in the social circles of St. Petersburg, he has gained the respect of every military critic and war correspondent who has come in personal contact with him. Mr. Hector Fuller, the American correspondent who succeeded in getting safely into Port Arthur (and out again), declares that, the world over, no one man impressed him with "such a sense of dignity and power, of sheer ability and dogged determination, as did General Stoessel." The general's square jaw and grizzled, close-cropped beard strongly suggest General Grant to this correspondent. "His eyes were steely-gray, but they could twinkle



GENERAL STOESSEL.

merrily. He stood firmly on his feet, and his voice, like that of most of the big men of earth, was gentle and kindly—but he wasted it in no unnecessary words."

Stoessel himself, despite his origin, is a thorough Russian. According to a statement made by the general's sister, his grandfather came to Russia from Sweden during the reign of the Emperor Paul. His two sons, Ivan and Michael, became Russian subjects, and were brought up in the orthodox faith, although their father always remained Lutheran. The present Stoessel is the son of Michael.

# THEODORE THOMAS AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF AMERICAN MUSIC.

BY W. J. HENDERSON.

THE death of Theodore Thomas removes from musical life in the United States a personality which at one time had a large significance, and which never ceased to have importance. Mr. Thomas, who was born in Essens, East Friesland, on October 11, 1835, came to this country while a child. He had already been taught by his father to play the violin, and had made some concert appearances as an infant prodigy. In 1845, he played on several occasions in New York as a solo violinist, and then settled down to the routine of orchestral performance. He became one of the violinists in the opera orchestra of which the well-known Arditì was for a time conductor.

Under the Italian director, Mr. Thomas rose to the post of concert master, and as such helped to accompany Sontag, Grisi, Mario, and other celebrated artists. In 1854, together with Dr. William Mason, the pianist; Frederick Bergner, a 'cellist,—both of whom survive him; Joseph Mosenthal, a violinist, afterward conductor of the Mendelssohn Glee Club; Carl Bergmann, and George Matzka, also a violinist, he began a series of chamber-music concerts. These entertainments were the first of many in which Mr. Thomas figured, and which were of great influence upon the growth of a taste for good music in New York. It was in 1854 that Mason, Thomas' lifelong friend, finished his studies with Liszt and returned to this country, bringing with him some new chamber music by Brahms. Thomas was quick to perceive the high artistic importance of the new works, and from that time forward he was an ardent advocate of the great German symphonist.

AS A CHAMBER-MUSIC DIRECTOR.

Dr. Mason has said that in these chamber-music concerts Thomas at once took the lead and demonstrated his fitness for musical direction. Hence, in the season of 1864-65 he came to venture upon his first series of symphony concerts. These were carried on for five seasons with unequal success. In 1866 began the famous summer concerts. Mr. Thomas gave them at first in Terrace Garden, but in 1868 the need of a larger auditorium caused their removal to Central Park Garden. Old music-lovers still talk with enthusiasm of Thomas' Central Park Garden concerts. His fame as a conductor now

began to spread abroad, and he was praised especially for his admirable skill as a programmer.

In 1869, he made his first concert tour through the West, with an orchestra of forty musicians. Later, he increased the number to seventy-five, and in 1883 went Westward on a festival tour, which ended in San Francisco. The symphony concerts in New York, discontinued in 1869, were resumed in 1872, at Steinway Hall, and continued there till Mr. Thomas left New York for Cincinnati, where he had been appointed president of the new school of music, in 1878. In the season of 1877-78, he was conductor of the Philharmonic Society of New York, and in April, 1879, he was reelected to the same post, and that brought him back to the metropolis. In 1863, he became conductor of the Brooklyn Philharmonic Society, and retained the position almost without interruption till he left New York, in 1888, at which time he gave up also the conductorship of the New York Philharmonic.

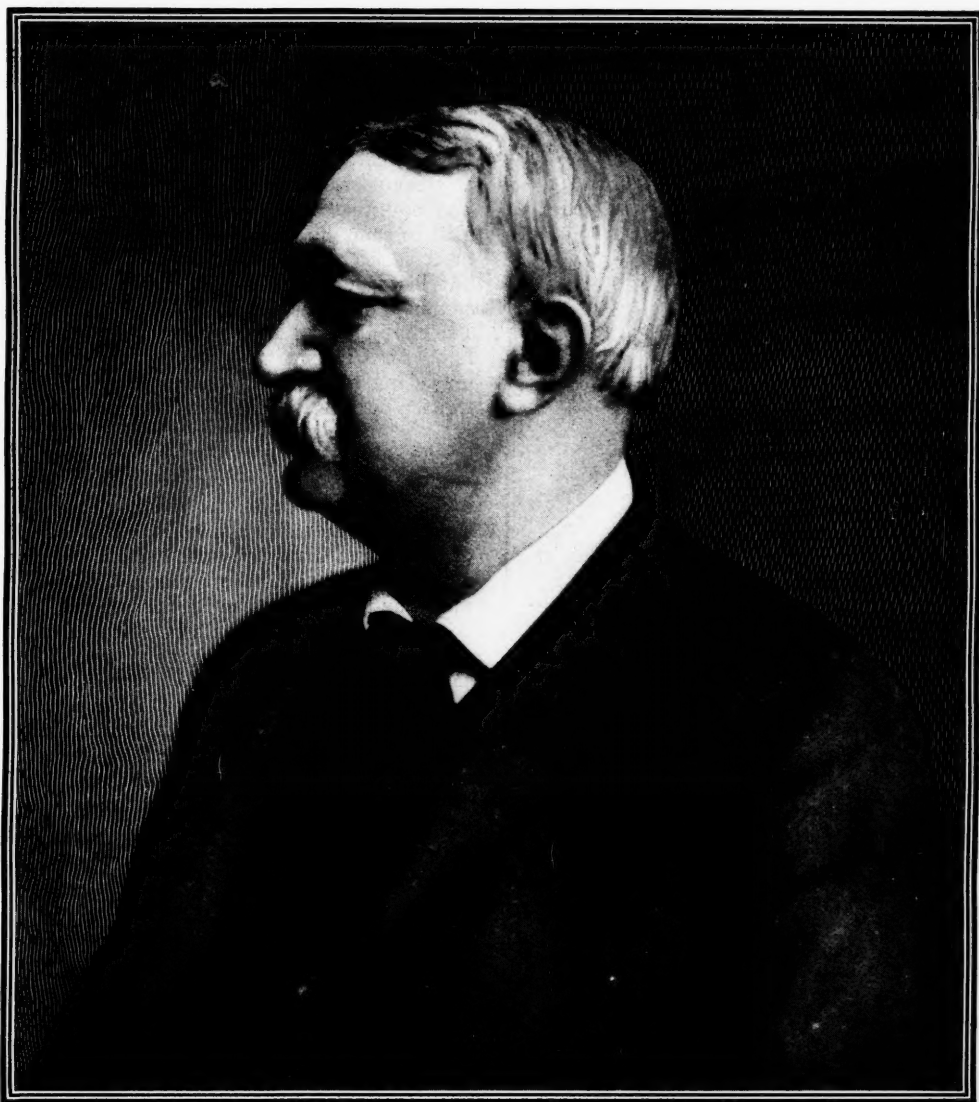
THE MOVE TO CHICAGO.

For some time previous to his departure, Mr. Thomas had been battling against odds. Others were beginning to reap the benefits of his labor in developing a taste for good music. New conductors appeared on the scene, and patronage had to be divided. Finally the Boston Symphony Orchestra began its visits to New York, and a new standard of finish was set up. The Thomas concerts lost money, and when a number of Chicago gentlemen associated themselves for the purpose of founding a local orchestra and offered the place of conductor to Mr. Thomas, he accepted. He had a hard struggle, at first, in the Western city, and maintained his high musical standard in the face of opposition, complaint, and pecuniary discouragement. His backers were faithful to him, however, and just before he died had erected for the orchestra a handsome new music hall.

The truth is that when Mr. Thomas died he had completed the labors which signified. In New York, he had planted the idea of the orchestra as a musical entity. The "Thomas Orchestra" was the forerunner of the Boston Orchestra, the Chicago Orchestra, and the other



*THEODORE THOMAS AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF AMERICAN MUSIC.*



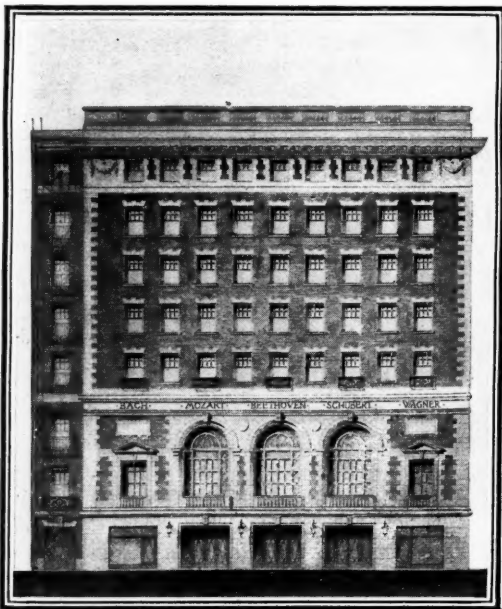
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THE LATE THEODORE THOMAS.

city orchestras which are now part and parcel of the musical life of the United States. As conductor of his orchestra he set up a high standard of refinement, finish, and tonal beauty of performance. In earlier days, it was regarded as sufficient for an orchestra to present the music. If it was played with spirit and plenty of sound, that was enough. Mr. Thomas offered artistic polish in his concerts, and with it he combined individuality of interpretation. He was the first concert conductor in this country to

specialize the personal reading of the works in hand. Others had given readings, of course, but Mr. Thomas invited attention to his, challenged criticism, and sometimes provoked controversy.

There is an erroneous belief that he was the first advocate of Wagner in this country. Whatever credit belongs to that place must be awarded to Carl Bergmann, for it was he who played Wagner in season and out of season, and who, when some one complained that people did not



From the architect's drawing.

## THE NEW HALL OF THE CHICAGO ORCHESTRA.

(Built for Theodore Thomas, out of an endowment of \$750,000, subscribed in small amounts by the citizens of Chicago. It is now proposed to call it the Theodore Thomas Hall.)

like Wagner, answered, "Then they must hear him: till they do." Mr. Thomas' greatest claim as a conductor is to catholicity of taste. He was a conservator of all that was best in the older schools, and a warm friend of all that was great among the new. He saw Wagner, but not Wagner alone.

He was a persistent performer of the music of Bach, which was far less likely to appeal to general audiences than the music of Wagner. It took courage to put Bach fugues on programmes thirty-five years ago, but Mr. Thomas gave the old master a prominent place. He also made a specialty of his performances of Beethoven's symphonies, and his readings came to be accepted by the concert-going public as authoritative. He was vigorously criticised for some of his interpretations, however, and was bitterly censured for having on one occasion transposed the last movement of the ninth symphony. But it is beyond question that Mr. Thomas did much to establish the public standard of taste in the

works of Bach, Beethoven, Schubert, and Schumann. He also made known the symphonies of Brahms, and, so far as America was concerned, he discovered Tchaikowsky and the Russian school. Twenty-five years ago, he was giving Tchaikowsky's works frequently in his Steinway Hall concerts. Furthermore, he produced many new compositions every year, for his reputation was so great in Europe that composers were glad to send him their scores for introduction in America. He never conducted in Europe, but his name was synonymous there with the advance of musical intelligence in this land. The confidence of European composers did not blind Mr. Thomas to the claims of American musicians, and he produced a number of works written on this side of the Atlantic.

## SPREADING THE WAGNER GOSPEL.

Although Mr. Bergmann was the first educator of the public in the Wagnerian idea, Mr. Thomas was an active agent in the further spread of the Baireuth gospel. In 1882, he conducted a music festival in the Seventh Regiment Armory, and gave, for the first time here (in concert form, of course), parts of "Das Rheingold" and "Siegfried." He brought over for that festival the famous original *Brünnhilde*, Amalia Materna. In 1884, he brought her here again, together with Hermann Winkelmann, the tenor, and Emil Scaria, the bass, and gave a great series of Wagner concerts. Christine Nilsson, Emma Juch, Emily Winant, and other prominent singers were also engaged in the festival. The programmes embraced selections from all the music-dramas of Wagner, including "Parsifal."

Furthermore, Mr. Thomas played Wagner's music at his concerts very frequently. His work in making Americans acquainted with the later music of the Baireuth master was of great value, and he contributed largely to the spread of comprehension of the purposes and methods of the composer. When Mr. Thomas left New York for Chicago he had done his work here. He repeated in the metropolis of the middle West the educational achievements of his career in the East. He has left behind him in Chicago an orchestra second only, and a close second at that, to the Boston organization, which is conceded to be one of the two or three best in the world. Some other conductor will carry forward his work in the West, as other conductors did here, but the value of his life will not be forgotten.



# WHAT JUSTIFIES INTERVENTION IN WAR?

BY AMOS S. HERSHEY.

(Of the faculty of Indiana University.)

IN view of the present struggle in the far East, it is perhaps of general interest at this time to consider the grounds upon which intervention in war may be justified or defended. This war is one which involves not only the interests of Japan and Russia, but its ultimate outcome is certain to affect the material and moral welfare of the entire world. The far-Eastern question, like that of the nearer East, is made up of a group of problems which cannot be solved in isolation. This is due to the growing international solidarity of modern economic and political life, and to the fact that the great powers (including the United States) have developed interests in farther Asia and have adopted a policy in respect to these interests which cannot be abandoned without the loss of enormous present advantages as well as the sacrifice of well-nigh unlimited possibilities of future growth.

Mainly through the foresight and activity of that great statesman and diplomatist, Secretary Hay, the leading powers of the world are committed to the policy of the "open door" and the maintenance of the neutrality and integrity of China. Any serious attempt on the part either of Russia or of Japan to violate these principles must needs call for intervention, if the governments of the powers concerned desire to "save face" in China or preserve a proper sense of dignity and self-respect at home. In any case, it is improbable, because of numerous precedents and the magnitude of the interests involved, that a final solution or adjustment of the political problems arising from this war shall take place without the intervention of a congress of the powers such as has been held at the close of nearly every important war or series of wars since the middle of the seventeenth century.

## EVOLUTION OF THE MODERN EUROPEAN STATE.

In order to make this clear, it will be necessary to give a brief historical survey of the evolution of the modern European states-system and to cite some instances of intervention in modern times.

Soon after the periods of the Renaissance and the Reformation, the idea of a common superior or universal sovereign and arbiter, which had dominated the minds and imagination of men since the days of the Roman Empire, gradually

gave way to the modern conception of equal and sovereign states. This important change in the history of international relations was due to the rise and growth of the young and vigorous European states and nationalities of that period and to the profound and widespread influence of two great and original political thinkers,—the Florentine scholar and diplomatist, Machiavelli, and the Dutch jurist and publicist, Grotius. The former, who was at once a profound student of Roman history and contemporary Italian politics, discarded the worn-out idea of a common superior, and, in 1513, he presented the world with a portrait of the ideal modern *prince*,—a sovereign whose conduct was to be controlled exclusively by motives of national self-interest and considerations of political expediency. Machiavelli taught that self-preservation and self-development, in the sense of material prosperity and territorial expansion, were the most important objects of national policy, and he seemed ready to justify any means, however immoral, which really contributed toward the attainment of these ends. He justified, and even recommended, intervention in war on the ground of self-interest alone, and characteristically advised his *prince* never to remain neutral in any war in which his neighbors were involved, inasmuch as "it is always more advantageous to take part in the struggle."

Grotius, whose great work, entitled "*De Jure Belli ac Pacis*," appeared in 1625, also discarded the Roman and medieval theory of a common superior, but he dealt with the problems which confronted him by a different method and in an entirely different spirit. He formulated a new system of international law adapted to the ideal needs of humanity as well as to the actual conditions of the modern world and capable of almost indefinite expansion. For this system he claimed the sanction of the law of nature (the principles of which were then regarded as self-evident) and based his whole view of the rights and duties of states upon the theory of their absolute independence and legal equality. In opposition to Machiavelli, he set up the principle that the mere "possibility of being attacked" does not justify war and intervention, although he admitted that the aggrandizement of another state might be a legitimate *casus belli* in a war which was otherwise just.

## INSTANCES OF INTERVENTION IN MODERN TIMES.

The great majority of interventions in war during modern times have been due to an effort on the part of European statesmen to maintain a balance of power or equilibrium of forces between the leading states of Europe. This system, which originated among the free city-republics of Italy at the close of the fifteenth century, was definitely established by the Peace of Westphalia in 1648. Threatened by the aggressive policy of Louis XIV., it was reestablished, and indeed received its first formal recognition, by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. The history of the international relations of the eighteenth century may be broadly described as an attempt on the part of the leading statesmen of Europe to maintain this balance or equilibrium of forces. This balance of power, once more threatened by the aggressions of France during the Napoleonic era, was a second time restored at the Congress of Vienna in 1815.

During the nineteenth century, the idea of maintaining a balance of power in Europe gradually gave rise to the conception of the so-called "Concert of Europe,"—a sort of loose confederacy of five or six of the leading European powers, whose members now intervene jointly or collectively as a result of diplomatic negotiations among themselves or of deliberations at a European congress. Originally formed for the purpose of maintaining the treaty arrangements of the Congress of Vienna and of putting down revolutionary movements, this European Concert of Powers extended the scope of its activity, first, to the affairs of the Ottoman Empire; and then to the far East, which is now the principal field of its labors. Thus, England, France, and Russia interposed against Turkey in favor of the "autonomy" of Greece in 1827 in order to put an end to Turkish oppression and "effusion of blood." In 1833, Russia, having aided the Sultan against Mehemet Ali of Egypt, acquired the right, by the Treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi, of armed intervention in Turkish affairs. In 1840, the Quadruple Alliance intervened in a second war between Mehemet Ali and the Sultan for the purpose of maintaining the "integrity of the Ottoman Empire in the interests of the peace of Europe." In 1854, France and England felt called upon to come to the rescue of Turkey against the aggressions of Russia. This intervention led to the Crimean War. In December, 1855, Austria intervened in this struggle with an ultimatum to Russia which resulted in a congress of the powers and the Treaty of 1856, which declared that "the existence of Turkey within the limits preserved by the treaties has

become one of the conditions necessary to the European equilibrium." Again, when Russia attempted to impose her own terms upon the Sultan, after the Russo-Turkish War of 1877, in the Treaty of San Stefano, England and Austria threatened war against Russia and secured an important reduction of the terms of this treaty at the Congress of Berlin. In 1886, and again in 1897, the powers intervened, in the one case to prevent, and in the other to put an end to, a war between Greece and Turkey.

The latest instance of intervention in a war between two important states occurred in the far East at the close of the Chino-Japanese War in 1895. The terms of peace between China and Japan provided for the cession to Japan of the Liao-Tung peninsula, including Port Arthur; but Russia, Germany, and France interfered with a "friendly representation," and advised Japan not to acquire a permanent title to this territory, inasmuch as "such a permanent possession would be prejudicial to the maintenance of the peace of the Orient."

It will thus be seen that intervention in war has been very frequent in modern times, and particularly so in the nineteenth century. Indeed, in the case of the affairs of one country at least—in those of the Ottoman Empire—they have been so frequent and constant as to create, in the opinion of some publicists, a body of jurisprudence which is part of the customary law of Europe. These interventions, however, would seem to belong to the domain of international politics rather than to that of law, and the state which interferes with the rights of others in this manner performs a political rather than a legal act. But it should be noted that the whole fabric of European supremacy in Asia, as well as in portions of Europe and Africa, rests upon this power or policy of political intervention which the powers now exercise jointly or collectively instead of severally.

## THE MONROE DOCTRINE AS A POLICY.

A political supremacy similar in kind, if not equal in degree, is wielded by the United States on the American continent. Though the extent and method of control is different from that exercised by the European concert of powers in Europe, Africa, and Asia, the kind of control or influence is virtually the same. It is a primacy essentially political in its nature and has no legal basis whatever, but rests upon certain well-known maxims of national policy, originally enunciated by the Fathers of the Republic and frequently applied in international politics by our leading statesmen. Based originally upon the principle of non-interference in the affairs of Europe, the



Monroe Doctrine is, in its essence, a system or policy of intervention adapted to the needs and interests of the states of America.

With the exception of the conspicuous part which we played in the collective interference of the powers in the internal affairs of China in connection with the Boxer uprising of 1900, the United States has confined its interventions to the American continent. The two most famous instances of intervention in our history have been that against the unjustifiable interference of Napoleon III. in the affairs of Mexico, in 1861-65, and that in behalf of Cuba against Spain, on the grounds of humanity and our national interests, in 1898. But the fact should not be overlooked that our government has also threatened intervention in several other instances,—*e.g.*, in 1881, in the war between Chile and Peru, to avert the threatened destruction by Chile of Peruvian nationality (not to prevent the cession of Peruvian territory to Chile, as is often asserted), and, in 1895, in the territorial dispute between England and Venezuela, when President Cleveland insisted upon arbitration. The most recent instance is that of President Roosevelt's interference in the internal affairs of the United States of Colombia by a premature recognition of the independence of Panama,—an act which may be justified on the grounds that it appears to have been necessary in order to advance and safeguard the essential and permanent interests of the "collective civilization" of the world as well as our own "national interests and safety."

#### OPINIONS OF WRITERS ON INTERNATIONAL LAW.

Publicists have always differed widely as to what are legal or justifiable grounds for intervention in international law, or whether, indeed, there be any such at all. The present tendency is certainly toward the acceptance of the principle of non-intervention as the correct rule, but to admit intervention in rare and exceptional cases on high moral and political rather than on legal grounds. Nearly all authorities concede the legitimacy of intervention on the ground of self-preservation,—*i.e.*, to prevent hostile acts or to ward off imminent danger, but at this point any approach to unanimity ceases. Perhaps also the majority of publicists justify it if necessary to prevent or to terminate an unjustifiable intervention or to enforce treaty rights and obligations, more especially in the execution of treaties of guarantee. Some authorities favor and others condemn intervention on the following grounds: to preserve the balance of power; to put an end to violent oppression, religious

persecution, or to great crimes and slaughter when these constitute an international nuisance or a grave public scandal; to protect the rights, financial or otherwise, of the citizens or subjects of a state while in foreign lands; to prevent or terminate a war which menaces the security of other states, or which, by its undue prolongation, or for other reasons, threatens to become an international nuisance or public scandal; to enforce respect for fundamental principles of international law; and interference in a civil war at the request of either or both of the parties involved, more particularly when the rules of warfare are being seriously violated or ignored. Some writers are disposed to look upon joint intervention, or intervention by the powers acting in their collective capacity, with more favor than in other cases, and there appears to be a growing tendency in this direction.

It is becoming the generally accepted opinion that the correct rule of international law is that of non-interference in the external or internal affairs of other nations. Although history teems with instances of intervention on various grounds and under divers pretexts, the principle of non-intervention is a necessary corollary of the modern Grotian doctrine of the independence and equality of sovereign states. Intervention, whether in war or in peace (and there is no difference in principle between the two cases), should be regarded as an altogether abnormal and exceptional procedure which can only be justified on high moral or political grounds. It should never be resorted to except in those rare and exceptional cases where,—*e.g.*, great crimes against humanity are being perpetrated (as was the case in Greece, Armenia, and Cuba), or where essential and permanent national or international interests of far-reaching importance are at stake (as in the case of the Ottoman Empire, Mexico, and Panama). It is on the latter ground that intervention in the present war in the far East must be justified, if at all justifiable. If Japan is victorious, and uses her victory with moderation, there may be no occasion for intervention, although it is probable that the powers (including the United States) will in any case insist upon being kept informed of the progress of negotiations, in the meantime offering suggestions and advice. If, on the other hand, Japan fails to observe the moderation which is expected of her in the event of victory, or if Russia is ultimately victorious and makes exorbitant or insidious demands, it will in all probability lead to a joint or collective intervention of those powers whose interests are threatened by such aggression. The United States is one of these.

# THE JAPANESE ART OF JIU-JITSU.\*

BY H. IRVING HANCOCK.

(Author of "Japanese Physical Training," "Jiu-Jitsu Combat Tricks," etc.)

IT would be difficult indeed to convey to an American any adequate notion of how essential a part of Japanese life and character jiu-jitsu is. Many students of Dai Nippon would feel inclined to state the case conversely,—that the Japanese people, with their habits of thought and action, could hardly be expected to avoid discovering this strange and bewildering art of personal combat.

The question most commonly asked by the uninitiated is, "What is jiu-jitsu?" The reply is that it is the perfect art of self-defense in personal encounter. Boxing and wrestling, as we know them to-day, are vanquished by jiu-jitsu as easily as the wind sends the chaff on about its unimportant business. It is difficult for the Anglo-Saxon, proud of his strength and of his skill in boxing or wrestling, to believe that he is the most insignificant sort of an opponent as against what he regards as an "undersized" Japanese.

Much wonder was excited, recently, by the swift and utter defeat that my friend Higashi administered to "Ajax," the champion strong man of the New York Police Department. Higashi is twenty-three years of age, and weighs one hundred and ten pounds. "Ajax" is of powerful build, and can lift a piano without assistance. Higashi, on the other hand, makes no pretension to such strength as this. Each of the three bouts was won in an instant by the Japanese, and the metropolis marveled for a day or two before it forgot the incident. The joke of it was that Higashi did not regard the herculean policeman as a capable opponent, and used against him only the simplest feats known to adepts.

Your jiu-jitsu man does not train for an encounter. He does not go through any form of practice that he may better fit himself for the meeting. When the event comes on, he is ready for it—that is all. After he has won his victory, he goes calmly about his other business. And herein one sees something of the vast influence that jiu-jitsu exerts upon the Japanese national character. Jiu-jitsu teaches the little brown man to be brave, because it convinces him that there is nothing of which to be afraid. He knows in advance that his opponent, no matter

how strong, or how skillful in other methods of fighting, will be defeated. Hence, your Japanese is calmly confident in advance of the meeting with his opponent.

Jiu-jitsu is not taught to bullies; hence, your adept has learned to be patient and to bide his time. Many times, while he is learning the art, he is "killed" and is brought back to life by his teacher. Hence, it is schooled into him to be indifferent about such a petty detail as death. If a big fellow blusters at a little Japanese adept, the adept knows that he will be victor as soon as trouble really starts. It is amusing to him to hear the big fellow vaunt about what he is going to do. Hence the inscrutable "Japanese smile." When the Japanese finds himself racked with pain under the torments necessarily inflicted by his teacher, he knows only



A simple feat. Higashi's opponent has struck out with his left fist. Higashi, with his right hand, has struck assailant's left arm upward; at the same instant, Higashi has thrown his left arm around his assailant's neck. Higashi now darts behind his opponent, hoists him over his back, and so throws him.

\* The illustrations in this article are from photographs posed and taken especially for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.



Higashi's assailant has seized Higashi's lapel with right hand. In a twinkling Higashi has taken off the assaulting hand by the thumb-breaking trick. Holding the assailant's captured hand with both hands, Higashi forcibly flexes opponent's metacarpal bones over on wrist. Assailant finds it impossible to "reach" with his left. Higashi completes victory by planting his heel in his opponent's abdomen, his toe landing where it will give heart "knock-out." (A feat with which to kill an opponent.)

that he must suffer many more such agonies before he can hope to become really expert in jiu-jitsu. This makes for stoicism, and the Japanese soldier marvels when he hears the big wounded Russian prisoner groan under the surgeon's merciful implements. In a jiu-jitsu school, whether it be patience that is called for, or smiling endurance of agony, or the meeting again with death, the Japanese is taught unquestioning obedience to his teacher. This is grand training for unwavering loyalty to and utter self-abnegation before the Emperor, whom the subject is taught to regard as being of divine origin.

The significance of the introduction of jiu-jitsu into this country cannot be overestimated. It is meeting with favor everywhere that it has been taken up by young men of grit. There are several American women, already, who are very fair adepts—quite capable of defeating any uninitiated man. There is every indication that jiu-jitsu, after a year or two more, will be as widespread and as popular in this country as it is in the land of its birth. And the importance of this to the American nation cannot be stated in terms that will be excessive. Apart from mere skill in self-defense, it is worth much to a nation like ours to learn the thing that will bring

with it the acme of discipline and self-restraint, and the spirit of courtesy even to a deadly enemy.

Jiu-jitsu has its most distinguished American exponent in the President. And he has expressed his opinion that the art is worth more, in every way, than all of our athletic sports combined. He has emphasized his opinion by securing Yamashita as instructor in the art for the Naval Academy. After a while, the same work is to be taught at the Military Academy. The heads of several municipal police departments stand ready to introduce the work among the policemen under them. The present difficulty is the scarcity of qualified instructors in this country.

If Americans are to reap the utmost benefit from the introduction of jiu-jitsu here, the start must be made in the right way. In Japan, there are many methods of jiu-jitsu. There is only



Assailant has led with his left for Higashi's jaw. Higashi catches the wrist with his right hand and darts around sideways at assailant's left. Assailant follows with his right hand, but Higashi guards by striking assailant's captured left wrist under assailant's right wrist as it arrives. Now, seizing both fists, and with a dextrous twist of his body, Higashi throws his opponent over his shoulder. (It is at the jiu-jitsu man's option to break his opponent's neck in this feat.)

one, however, that is recognized as official. That is the eclectic system devised in recent years by Prof. Jiguro Kano, principal of the High Normal School of Tokio. Jiu-jitsu, in Japan, is the art of the gentleman; it is not intrusted to the class of subjects who would correspond to our prize-fighters. Hence, it is appropriate that the recognized authority on jiu-jitsu is also one of the leading educators of his country.

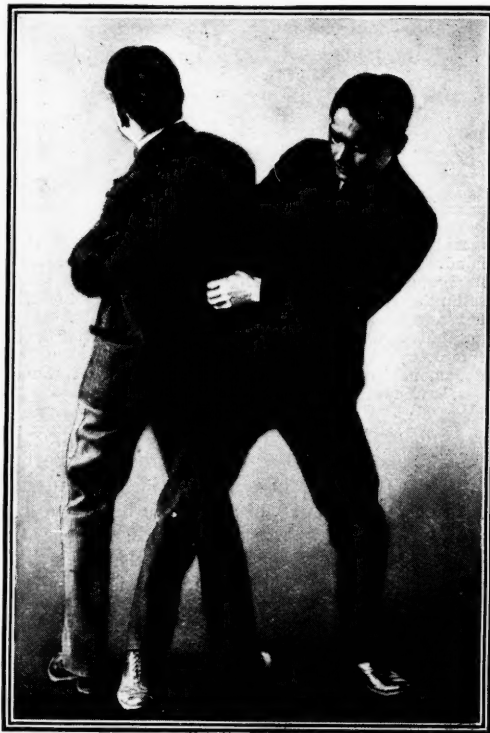
It is the Kano system that the President has mastered; it is this system which is to be taught at Annapolis and at West Point. The Kano is the official system of Japan, which is taught to every officer and enlisted man of the Japanese army, navy, and police departments. All of the other schools of jiu-jitsu, while providing methods that seem clever to the uninitiated American, are helplessly inferior before the Kano methods. Some of these inferior systems contain as many as three hundred feats each; the Kano has but one hundred and sixty feats, yet the Kano provides a wholly adequate defense, not only against the Anglo-Saxon boxer or wrestler, but against the adept of any one of the inferior, old-style Japanese schools.

Included in the one hundred and sixty feats of the Kano system are the "serious tricks," by which death may be caused at the will of the adept. Included also in these one hundred and sixty feats are the processes of *kuatsu*, or revivification, by which an opponent who has been apparently killed is brought back to the full possession of his functional powers. It would be out of the question to attempt a description of *kuatsu* in this paper. It can be said only that resuscitation is effected by means of prods, blows, or other shocks applied to various portions of the body, notably against certain vertebrae of the spine, and by a species of massage at the abdomen. It would be a revelation in anatomy to the American surgeon if he were initiated in *kuatsu*. This art of restoration is not widely taught, even in Japan, for the reason that the student must first of all become wholly proficient in the preliminary feats of the system.

*Kuatsu* is potent to restore many a victim of sunstroke who would be given up by our physicians. A Japanese policeman, who must be a master of the Kano methods, does not summon an ambulance surgeon when he has a drowning man to restore to life. He employs *kuatsu*, which is far more effective than the battery and other methods known to the medical fraternity.

The question has often been asked, "To what extent is jiu-jitsu understood in Japan?" It would be far from the truth to claim that every adult Japanese male is an adept. Nearly every

Japanese understands more or less of jiu-jitsu, just as most American boys pick up something of boxing. There are undoubtedly more real adepts at jiu-jitsu in Japan than there are thoroughly expert boxers in this country; the proportion of Japanese males who are reasonably proficient in jiu-jitsu is much higher than the proportion of American males who are fairly well versed in boxing. Some of the simpler feats of *kuatsu* are almost common property in Japan. These statements, of course, refer to the industrial population, every man in the armed



Assailant strikes with left fist and follows with right. The jiu-jitsu man catches assailant's left and right wrists as they are sent at him, and twists around the assailant's right, at the same time twisting assailant's right hand and arm back of assailant, and easily throws him backward.

forces of the government being required to be an adept in the Kano, or official, jiu-jitsu.

In our press, lately, much reference has been made to the fact that the Annapolis cadets are to be taught *jiudo*—something vastly superior to jiu-jitsu. It would be a trifle more accurate to refer to *jiudo* as highly scientific, or more advanced, jiu-jitsu. Professor Kano called his new system *jiudo* before its adoption by his government as the official system.





Assailant leads with left for jaw and follows with right for abdomen. Jiu-jitsu man guards by throwing his right arm up under his opponent's left in such position that assailant's face is exposed to attack. Then assailant's right is caught by both of Higashi's hands and twisted up over his shoulder preliminary to a throw backward.

In this country, there are at present but three real adepts in the Kano jiu-jitsu, or *jiudo*. One is Yamashita, who taught the President; who afterward gave instruction to a limited class at Harvard University, and who is now instructor at Annapolis. The second is Higashi, of New York, who is the peer of the first named. Isogai, who spends much of his time in Washington, is the third.

In the illustrations which accompany this paper, Mr. Higashi has posed, at the writer's request, in feats which provide for the discomfiture of the boxer. Each defensive movement in a trick is performed with the utmost speed. No attempt is made to overcome the boxer's strength; he is allowed to use his full muscular powers. Jiu-jitsu has been defined as the art of conquering by yielding. It would be more exact to say that the jiu-jitsian on the defensive accommodates himself to the movements of his opponent. It is sought to divert a boxer's strength, speed, and momentum so that he will

employ them for his own defeat. Once the idea is grasped, this is such a simple thing to do that the jiu-jitsu defense seems almost elemental.

Never once does the boxer's blow land. Its direction is always diverted; the seizure of an assailant's wrist or arm is not made until the boxer's fist has all but landed. Often the boxer's momentum has been so great that when its direction is diverted he is easily sent off his balance. It is admitted, even among American boxers, that a defensive move can be made more



When assailant leads with left, his wrist is caught by Higashi's left hand, and in the swift body-swing that follows, Higashi's right hand lands in a grip on assailant's left shoulder, and Higashi's right knee is pressing the back of assailant's left arm. (The arm may be broken in an instant with this feat.)

rapidly than an assaulting one. With this initial advantage on his side, and with his wonderful art at command, the jiu-jitsian finds it child's-play to defeat the boxer signally and invariably. It is not always possible to stop a clever and hard-hitting boxer without knocking him out,—“killing him,” the Japanese say,—yet it is much easier to defeat the boxer with jiu-jitsu than it is to overcome the clever wrestler. But the exponent of either boxing or wrestling meets with speedy defeat at the hands of his Japanese opponent.

## WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN SCANDINAVIA.

THE constitutional liberty enjoyed by the Danes, the Norwegians, and the Swedes is the result of a free, and outspoken press. Conversely put, this freedom of speech, as expressed through the numerous Scandinavian newspapers and periodicals, is the logical outcome where the people of the respective countries share completely in the affairs of their government. As a matter of fact, it required not a few hard-fought battles with pen on paper against the powers that were before Northern journalism attained to its present high estate. More than one editor of the radical school found the prison cell his sole reward for championing the cause of liberty during the period of "reconstruction." But as in Scandinavia legislative halls were compelled to open to farmer, burgher, and aristocrat on equal terms censorial restriction became a dead letter, until to-day the press of no nation in the world is freer from pernicious interference than that of Denmark and Sweden-Norway. As promoters of education among the masses, the Scandinavian newspapers can teach their European contemporaries more than one lesson.

### THE DANISH PRESS.

That the Danes are great readers, the publication of more than twenty daily papers in Copenhagen alone bears testimony. The monthly magazines, the illustrated weeklies, and the many technical journals are evidence that this reading is not confined to the newspapers.

Foremost among the progressive newspapers of Copenhagen, which means, of course, of Denmark, is the *Politiken* (Politics). That it is the organ of the Liberals may be assumed from its aggressive title. Established by the late Viggo Lauritz Hörup, in his day the most brilliant among a conspicuous group of journalists, the *Politiken* was born, so to speak, during the most strenuous political period the country ever witnessed. It was Hörup's virile pen that fought relentlessly against the fogysm of the ultra-Conservatives, and, instrumental in bringing about the great political reform of 1901, this champion of equal rights became a member of the Deuntzer cabinet. The present editor of the *Politiken* is Edward Brandes, a brother of the famous critic, Georg Brandes, and himself an author and dramatist of fame. The associate editor is Henrik Cavling, who has been a frequent visitor to the

United States. His descriptive articles are remarkable for their picturesqueness, and Cavling is essentially the Danish journalist with American tendencies.

The *Dannebrog* (literally, the Banner of Denmark) is likewise a newspaper with decidedly



HENRIK CAVLING.

(Managing editor of the *Politiken*, of Copenhagen.)

Liberal inclinations. Yet there is a difference between its Liberalism and that of the *Politiken*. The *Dannebrog* is the organ of the minister of justice, Alberti, but the policy of this astute statesman does not always agree with the other members of the Danish cabinet. Consequently, there are many heated arguments

in the columns of both the *Dannebrog* and its numerous opponents, and the *Politiken* is one of the first to pick flaws in what the *Dannebrog* asserts.

It was given to the *Berlingske Tidende* (Berling's Times) to treat the Danish reading public to one of the greatest surprises the capital ever experienced. This, the oldest Danish newspaper, and the official organ since the publication of its first number (January 3, 1749), caused consternation at hundreds of breakfast-tables, a few years ago, when its readers discovered that it had suddenly deserted the Conservative ranks and had gone over body and soul to its one-time enemy, the Liberals. If any evidence was needed that the Liberal party had come to stay, this action of the "old reliable" was proof conclusive. Aside from its political creed, there has been little change in the columns of the *Berlingske Tidende*. It is still moderate in its views of the literary and educational needs of the country. It is decidedly the paper read by the class in authority. Its columns are dignified to the point of severity.

The *National Tidende* (National Times) is a journal of absolute aristocratic tendencies, and it is now, as ever, relentlessly pro-monarchical. The *National Tidende* is one of a syndicate of news-



SOME REPRESENTATIVE DANISH PERIODICALS.

papers that includes the *Dagstelegrafen* (Daily Telegraph), the *Dagbladet* (Daily Journal), the *Dagens Nyheder* (Daily News), and the *Aftenposten* (Evening Post). There is, however, a vast difference as regards the kind of reading matter served up by these various publications.

The actual rival of the Liberal journals of Denmark is the *Vort Land* (Our Country). In view of the fact that the country is now represented by a Liberal Congress, the title of *Vort Land* sounds rather peculiar. Nevertheless, in justice to its policy it must be said that no less than the most radical newspaper does it fight for its country's welfare,—from its own point of view. The articles in *Vort Land* are very brightly written, even though they do not always convince. Its circulation extends throughout the country, and is very large.

The title of the *Social-Demokraten* (Social Democrat) is self-explanatory. Its standing motto is, Liberty—Equality—Fraternity. It has, perhaps, the largest circulation of any Danish daily newspaper.

The *København* (Copenhagen) is the *Petit Journal* of the Danish capital. It is the spiciest of the dailies, and appears at noon. Its editor is H. Witzansky. It sells for two öre (about one-quarter cent), which is one-half what the majority of the other newspapers cost on the street.

Of the remaining Danish dailies, the most noteworthy are the *Samfundet* (Society, in its

fullest sense), *Folkets Avis* (People's Paper), and *Børsen* (Bourse).

The Danish illustrated weeklies play a considerable part in the intellectual affairs of the country. First to mention is the *Illustreret Tidende* (Illustrated Times). This is a really first-class publication, comparing easily with the best of those of any other country. From the standpoint of circulation, however, the *Illustreret Familie Journal* (Illustrated Family Journal) is the weekly which leads them all. It has the (for Europe) enormous circulation of more than half a million copies, and while it sells for but ten öre, is well gotten up, both as regards text and illustration.

Of the other weekly publications, the *Hver 8 Dag* (Every 8th Day) has as its chief editor

Georg Kalkar. It is a popular paper, and belongs in the same class with the *Verdens Spejlet* (World's Mirror), the editors of which are A. W. Holm and Carl Bratti. Although the youngest among the weeklies, this is easily one of the brightest, and its birth was auspicious in that it came into existence as the organ of the Danish Journalist Society during the Press Exposition held in Copenhagen a couple of years ago.

Denmark has a number of excellent humorous papers, the leading ones being the *Klods-Hans* (Clumsy Hans) and *Ravnen* (Raven). In *Klods-Hans* especially, satire runs rampant, and the best talent in the country has here a field for fun and fancy. Christian Flor is the editor of this weekly humorist.

Among the weekly publications popular in the Danish home circle, *Frem* (Forward) caters to the intellectual readers. *Hjemmet* (the Home), *Husmoderens Blad* (the Housemother's Journal), and *Nordisk Mønster Tidende* (Northern Fashion Times) are useful in their respective spheres.

There are at least half-a-dozen monthly periodicals which exploit every phase of culture and knowledge. In the *Tilskueren* (Spectator), of which Valdemar Vedel is the editor, Denmark has a magazine than which none better is published anywhere. Contributors like Georg Brandes, Professor Höfding, and Emil Hanover lend to it a variety that never for one moment departs from actual literature. The same may

be said of *Dansk Tidsskrift* (Danish Periodical), which is edited by Dr. L. Mortensen. The *Det Ny Aarhundrede* (New Century) is published twice a month, and frequently contains illustrations.

#### PERIODICALS OF NORWAY.

The fact that the two languages of Denmark and Norway are almost identical is instrumental in providing a double fount, in that the newspapers of the one country are intelligible to the readers of either. Christiania, however, need not look to Copenhagen for its mental pabulum. The chief city of Norway is well provided with newspapers, and they are all prosperous.

Catholicity is the predominant feature of Norwegian newspaper readers. To be a subscriber to half-a-dozen dailies is a rather common performance of the average well-to-do burgher of Christiania.

Heading the list of Norwegian dailies, the *Verdens Gang* (World's Course) is, perhaps, the most liberal paper published in Norway. Even a country so liberally constituted through and through as is Norway has to have its parties diametrically opposed to each other in policy. The *Verdens Gang* is an up-to-date newspaper. The most famous writers of the country have been its contributors. Its present editor, Hr. Thomessen, worked a revolution in the mechanical departments of the newspapers of Christiania when he took charge of *Verdens Gang*, and he set the pace for the rest of the enterprising dailies of the Norwegian capital.

Almost equal in importance with the *Verdens Gang* is the *Aftenposten* (Evening Post). It was in the columns of this paper that the first letters of Nansen found their way to the eagerly waiting reading public after his return from the far North, and the fact that these letters were to appear drew a large *clientèle* to *Aftenposten* long before the actual event. *Aftenposten* is sedate in every respect.

The *Norske Intelligenssedler* (Norwegian Intelligence Notes) was long a government organ, to the extent that it gazetted events coming under the head of affairs of state. It was established in 1763. The present editor-in-chief, Hjalmar Løken, has succeeded in completely modernizing the paper since he took charge, about a dozen years ago. Moderation is likewise a feature of the *Morgen Bladet* (Morning Journal), of which Nils Vogt is editor. This paper has an evening edition as well, and its circulation is considerable. An even larger circulation is, however, enjoyed by the *Dagbladet* (Daily Journal), which under the editorial leadership of A. T. Omholdt has succeeded in commanding the writings of the first authors in the land. Among the remaining dailies of Christiania, *Örebladet* (Penny Paper) is considered one of the best mediums for the advertiser who wishes to reach the masses. Its make-up bears evidence that American journalism has been its teacher. *Kristiania Dagsavis* (Christiania Daily Journal) and the *Social-Demokraten* (Social Democrat) are both live publications, with a following distinctly their own.

In the domain of illustrated publications, Norway is not quite as well provided as its neighbor across the water. There are, however, a few of exceptional merit and characteristic of the country. *Norsk Familie Journal* (Norwegian Family Journal) is a very entertaining weekly, excellently illustrated and well written. *Urd* (Forward) is the organ of the modern Norwegian woman, is edited by a woman, Anna Bøe, and the publishers are Cecilie and Anna Bøe. *Folkebladet* (People's Journal) is the especial favorite of the large population of the countryside and in the mountainous districts.

The technical and scientific journals of Norway



A FEW PROMINENT NORWEGIAN PUBLICATIONS.





SOME OF THE BEST-KNOWN SWEDISH JOURNALS.

are numerous. The extensive mining and lumber industries have been the means of creating a literature devoted to metallurgy and the care of the forests. So, too, the fishery industry has a number of journals looking to its interests. The *Farmand* (Seafarer) is the trade journal *de facto* of the business men of the country. The *Kringsjaa* (Circle) is an entertaining semi-monthly publication. The *Samtiden* (Present Age) is an attractively gotten up monthly magazine.

#### THE SWEDISH PRESS.

The reading of the Swedes is a trifle more academic than is the case with either Norway or Denmark. Nevertheless, the newspapers of Sweden are very numerous, and are universally progressive. International politics occupies considerable space in the Swedish papers, and the present war in the East has brought to the fore the intense anti-Russian sentiment that has remained partly dormant for many years.

The *Aftonbladet* (Evening Journal), of Stockholm, has a circulation of several hundred thousand. American affairs is a favorite department of this paper, and its liberal tendencies make it welcome in the United States, where so many communities have been settled entirely by Swedish immigrants. In direct contrast to the liberal views of *Aftonbladet*, the *Nya Dagligt Allehanda* (New Daily All-Sorts-of-Things) is very conservative, notwithstanding its elaborate title. This is the organ of the aristocracy, is edited

by Dr. J. A. Björklund, and is the most expensive newspaper published in Sweden. On the other hand, the cheapest paper is the *Stockholms-Tidningen* (Stockholm Times), published by Anders Jeurling, who is also the publisher of the *Hvad Nytt I Dag* (News To-Day). As an advertising medium, the *Dagens Nyheter* (Daily News) stands in the forefront of its contemporaries, and it voices the sentiments of the Liberal party. The *Svenska Dagbladet* (Swedish Daily) has illustrations, after the manner of its American colleagues. It is the champion of woman. As in Denmark, the Socialist party carries considerable weight in Sweden. The organ is the *Social-Demokraten* (Social Democrat).

Among the other Swedish newspapers whose influence is far-reaching, the *Stockholms-Bladet* (Stockholm Journal), the *Vårt Land* (Our Country), the *Aftonbladet* (Evening Journal), and the *Post- och Inrikes Tidningar* (Post and Interior Times) are all established firmly in the estimation of the nation. The last-named publication is undoubtedly one of the oldest newspapers in the world. The first number made its appearance in 1645. Under the direct control of the government, it voices the sentiment prevailing at court and in the official departments.

A number of weekly publications are issued in Stockholm. The serious reviews are well edited, and appealing to a popular reading class is the *Varia* (Varied), which prints many translations.

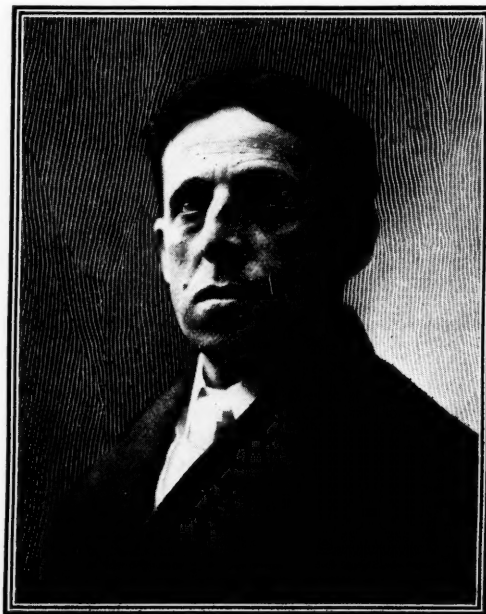
JULIUS MORITZEN.

## LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

### THE OPEN VERSUS THE CLOSED SHOP.

A TEMPERATE and helpful discussion of the "open-shop" question, from the point of view of an enlightened unionism, is contained in an article contributed to the *North American Review* for January by Mr. Henry White, the founder and for many years secretary of the United Garment Workers of America. Mr. White resigned his office in the union last year because of his opposition to the strikes begun in New York against the open-shop attitude of the employers' association in his trade. In his *North American* article, Mr. White shows clearly that he understands, and to a certain extent sympathizes with, the position taken by many representative unionists in favor of the closed shop. He believes, in fact, that the workmen's right to organize and to refuse to work with non-unionists does not, in a broad sense, conflict with the employer's right to engage non-union workmen if he chooses. "Conflict occurs only where one side, in pursuing its own rights, encroaches upon the rights of the other,"—for Mr. White denies that the mere possession of a right justifies the fullest exercise of it under all conditions. Indeed, he draws a sharp distinction between being forced to give up a right and deciding to suspend its exercise for practical reasons. Applying this principle to the matter at issue, Mr. White argues:

Many an employer will readily accommodate himself to a situation and employ only union men, but he will strongly protest against being bound by contract to do so. Even should he employ union men exclusively, he may reserve the right to employ others if he so desires. And so with the union workmen. When unable to help themselves, they will work with non-members; but they will resist an attempt to make them agree to do so at all times. The method by which the open or closed shop is upheld is the real question. There is no difficulty as to principle, if the acknowledged rights of either side are respected. The one condition that the union can justly insist upon is, that there shall be no discrimination against its members, and that the employees shall be treated with through their representatives. The natural disadvantage of the laborer entitles him to that consideration, and public opinion sustains him to that extent. Because, however, the closed shop would strengthen the union and enable the members to secure fair terms, it does not follow that it rests with the employer to uphold it. It is manifestly absurd to expect the employer to force the organization of his employees against himself.



MR. HENRY WHITE.

Even if he were to do so, it would prove destructive to the spirit of unionism. The ability of workmen to organize independently is what gives unionism significance, and it is the resistance offered to the union that checks arbitrary tendencies. Unions, like individuals, seek to gain the benefits of struggle without the effort; hence the denunciations of employers for not granting what can come only through sustained effort.

The strongest argument urged against the open shop is that if the employer were permitted to hire non-union workmen the union workmen would soon be displaced and the union standards broken down. Undoubtedly, the employer would be inclined to discriminate, but that is a situation the union must meet by better organization. The employer could allege also, on the same grounds, that by employing union men he would lose control of his shop and workmanship would deteriorate. The task of each side is to prevent the other from making unfair use of its power, not to seek to protect itself from oppression by curtailing the liberty of the other. The existence of such extensive and efficient unions as the railroad brotherhoods, which deal with a most powerful set of employers and never raise the question of the closed shop, shows conclusively that the recognition of the closed shop is not vital to the union's existence. There is, besides,

the example of the successful British unions, which pursue a similar policy.

#### IS THE SOCIAL WELFARE THREATENED?

Holding that the welfare of society must be the final arbiter of all conduct, Mr. White concludes that the unions have not yet developed the self-restraint which would be needed if the closed shop were to prevail generally. Judging by the unions as now constituted, he declares that the closed shop would prove as injurious to unionism itself as it would to society. There would not be, within the union, the power to keep it from going to excess.

Organized workmen, because of their position, are unable to grasp as readily as others what the closed shop fully implies. They see the opportunity it offers

them to improve their position. The employers and a considerable number of the public see the possibilities for evil. The unionist, like others, believes that he can be trusted with unlimited power, and he cannot understand why there should be this unwillingness to grant him more. It is not probable that public opinion will favor the closed shop as defined usually by the union, because of the coercion it implies, or that the employing class will concede it without a struggle.

Believing that the untenableness of the closed shop as an issue has been demonstrated by the recent strikes, Mr. White urges the unions to abandon it as an issue, "while not relaxing their efforts to establish it by means which cannot be assailed." Unions, he says, in coping with the modern employer, must depend upon the inherent strength of their cause and build upon the rock of voluntary organization.

### SOUTHERN REPRESENTATION IN CONGRESS.

THE manner and tone in which the proposition now before Congress for reducing the representation of certain Southern States because of the alleged disfranchisement of negroes is discussed in the periodicals would indicate that both Southern and Northern writers are generally disposed to view the matter philosophically and to seek a common basis on which an effective remedy for the admitted evils of the present situation may be worked out. In the *Outlook* (New York) for January 7 there is an editorial discussion of the question based upon broad ethical considerations and opposing the proposed reduction on four distinct grounds: (1) that the basis of representation assumed in such a reduction, — *i.e.*, the number of voters rather than the total of population, — is a false basis; (2) that it is unjust to condition the Congressional representation of Southern States upon the number of votes cast and of Northern States upon the size of the population, — the basis should be the same for all the States; (3) that it would be unjust to the negro to concede to certain States the right to disfranchise him, even though the representation of those States should be proportionately reduced; and (4) that the national government can remedy any injustice by dealing with each Congressional district by itself.

The writer of this editorial article refuses to admit that the negro has been disfranchised by the constitution of any Southern State; but even if this charge were true, he holds that it would not be right for Congress to reduce the representation and permit the disfranchisement of the negro, as such, to continue. It is held by cer-

tain Southern journals that if the South's representation is reduced on such a ground the North can no longer demand negro suffrage, since the negro's disfranchisement is accepted by all parties as the basis of such reduction. The *Outlook* adopts this view of the case and holds that to reduce the representation would be to concede that the negro might be denied all his constitutional rights, provided the North could get, in return, a larger relative representation in Congress. The editor's conclusion, on ethical grounds, is that Congress has no moral right to say to any State, You may deprive some of your citizens of the suffrage provided you lessen your representation in Congress. It should, on the other hand, say to the election district which deprives its citizens of their constitutional right to vote, You shall not have any representation in Congress until you act in your elections according to the Constitution of the United States.

#### A Southerner's View-Point.

Mr. Edgar Gardner Murphy, the executive secretary of the Southern Education Board, has for years made a special study of the franchise question in the Southern States. His article in the *North American Review* for January answers in the negative the question, "Shall the Fourteenth Amendment Be Enforced?" Mr. Murphy points out practical difficulties in the way of enforcing the amendment, and also shows that enforcement, even if practicable, could work no benefit to the negro.

In the first place, how is the number of voters prevented by law from voting to be determined by the federal authorities? The number of votes

cast varies from election to election, according to the popular interest in the issues to be passed upon. Speaking of the effect of attempted enforcement upon the negro voter, Mr. Murphy says :

The attempt to establish any principle of true democracy by a process of penalties is likely to be futile ; it is not unlikely to be self-destructive. The setting of class against class,—where one class is essentially stronger than the other,—may alter the form of class ascendancy ; it cannot change its inherent and inevitable basis. In such a case, a futile penalty is more than a futility,—it is a crime against both the strong and the weak ; against the strong, because it is the aggravation of unnatural and abnormal hatreds, breaks down the sense of stewardship, increases the sense of indifference and alienation, developing the passions of constraint by imposing a policy of constraint. It is a crime against the weak because it involves a like alienation and a like distrust of moral forces. The North may punish the white man ; but the retort of the white man falls too

often upon the negro. The negro is upon the line of the cross-fire between the sections. The federal government may be solicitous as to his vote, but the negro needs the daily and neighborly solicitude of those who offer opportunities of labor—possibilities of bread. The North, especially the negro of the North, may wish to strike at the South, but the Southern negro, knowing that he must live with the Southern white man, rightly feels no cowardice in the confession that a privilege accorded voluntarily by the South is worth more than any conceivable privilege that might be imposed externally by the North. The latter may be but a temporary and exotic bauble. The former is a fact to rest in. What it is, it is. Because its basis lies rooted in the common consent of the whole people, it is a social and political reality. It is of a piece with nature. It is an achievement of democracy.

"The deeper mind of the South," according to Mr. Murphy, appeals from the penalties of the Fourteenth Amendment "to its principles and its anticipations."

## THE CHRISTIAN ARGUMENT AGAINST DIVORCE.

SINCE neither Church nor State has achieved a modicum of success in dealing with the divorce problem through legislation, there is an influential part of the Christian Church which appeals from laws temporal to laws spiritual for a settlement of the question, Is divorce right or wrong ? Mrs. Katrina Trask, writing in the January *Arena*, applies to the discussion the teachings of Christ, which she declares are distinctly against divorce,—conditions being as they now are,—and, consequently, against remarriage.

This is true, not canonically, but philosophically ; not on prohibitory, but on inherent, grounds ; not because of any special command of His against it, but because of His continued command for that which is a better solution of the problem.

We find but few utterances on which to build a dogma, but we find a multitude of utterances, and also His own example, to be used as a working principle, the outcome of which principle would lead straight away from divorce—for any cause, on any ground.

We find, "Forgive your enemies ;" no exception is made of husbands and wives. We find, "Do unto others as you would have others do unto you ;" "Do good to them which despitefully use you ;" no exception of this obligation is made to those bound together in temporal unions, even though those unions were mistaken ones.

"Resist not evil, but overcome evil with good."—this is not merely an utterance ; it was the power of Christ's life exemplified. That may not be a command against divorce,—but it is a command to bring good out of evil to better conditions. We find continual appeal to us to bring forth the fruits of the spirit : "Love, joy, peace, long-suffering, gentleness, goodness, faith, meekness, temperance." Would not this fruitage in heart and home be a certain way to prevent divorce ?

Christ's teaching,—from the Sermon on the Mount, when he said, "Blessed are the peacemakers," to the final death upon the cross, when he said, "Father, forgive them ; they know not what they do,"—is, in effect, a distinct protest against divorce.

### SELF-DEVELOPMENT AND UNCONGENIAL MARRIAGE.

In answer to the argument based on the obligation of self-development as the righteous warrant for divorce, in cases of uncongenial marriage, Mrs. Trask continues :

Can any man or woman, with strong, awakened soul, who is eager for evolution and development—who holds the spiritual ideal by which even the pagans claimed man could mount to the eternal—dare put a finality upon a situation—dare sever a relationship with one's nearest neighbor, and run away from the responsibility of helping that neighbor, and of triumphantly changing that situation ? Above all, dare they do this when the situation, however bad it be, has been brought about by the mistake of that man and woman, acting either in haste, passion, ignorance, or desire for benefits which have been proved too scanty for the price ?

Is it not too tremendous a responsibility to take, that of seeking a divorce, when one thereby also divorces the soul from its supreme opportunity—the opportunity to bring light out of darkness ?

No one can deny that self-development is man's highest obligation.

It is the law of God for man ; but how is self-development best obtained ? Is it not best obtained through discipline and endeavor ? In the name of all philosophy, practical and spiritual, what self-development is comparable to that gained in the work of changing conditions, making order out of chaos, harmony out of discord, light out of darkness ?



## MARK TWAIN ON COPYRIGHT.

**Q**UESTION. How many new American books are copyrighted annually in the United States?

*Answer.* Five or six thousand.

**Q.** How many have been copyrighted in the last twenty-five years?

*A.* More than one hundred thousand.

**Q.** How many altogether in the past one hundred and four years?

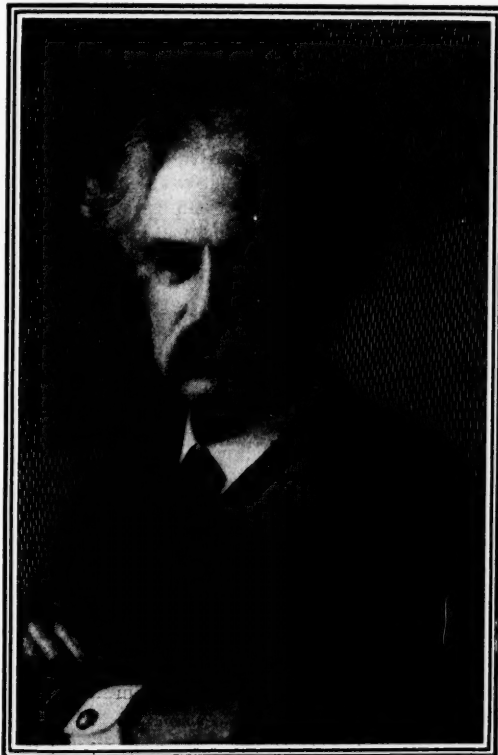
*A.* Doubtless two hundred and fifty thousand.

**Q.** How many of them have survived or will survive the forty-two-year limit?

*A.* An average of five per year. Make it ten, to be safe and certain.

In this unconventional way, Mark Twain opens a discussion of the American copyright laws in the form of an open letter to the register of copyrights, in the *North American Review* for January. The object of these questions and answers is to show that the forty-two-year limit of our present copyright law accomplishes no useful purpose, but, on the contrary, as Mark Twain succinctly puts it, "takes the bread out of the mouths of ten authors every year." If the copyright system be compared with our system for dealing with patents and inventions, it will be seen that the seventeen-year limit on patents is of much greater importance and value to the Government than the forty-two-year limit on copyrights. Out of the one hundred thousand new inventions a year, it may be fairly claimed that at least one thousand are worth seizing at the end of the seventeen-year limit. The really great and valuable inventions, however, like the telegraph and the telephone, the air-brake and the Pullman car, are quite beyond seizure. This, of course, is because of the enormous capital required to carry them on, which becomes their real protection from competition after the patents have perished. The revenue still goes on, and the proprietors of the patents continue to reap their profits. Not so in the case of the author of a meritorious book. At the end of the forty-two years, the Government takes all of the book's profits away from the estate of the author and gives them practically to the publishers. As Mark Twain shows, at the end of the forty-two-year term they can go on publishing and take all of the profits, both the author's and their own. Mr. Clemens cites the case of Mrs. Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin," the profits on which continue to-day, while nobody but the publishers gets them. Mrs. Stowe's share ceased seven years before she died; her daughters receive nothing from the book; and Washington Irving's estate fared in the same way.

Mr. Clemens has a remedy to suggest for what



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A LATE PORTRAIT OF MARK TWAIN.

he considers a "strange and dishonorable" condition of things. He assumes that in making a forty-two-year limit it was the Government's intention that all authors should enjoy the profit of their labors for a fair and reasonable time, and that then, after the extinguishment of the copyright, cheap editions should be secured for the public. It is hardly necessary to say that this intention has been repeatedly defeated, for in some instances the publishers have not lowered the price, and in other cases publishers have issued so many editions of the unprotected book that they have clogged the market and really killed the book. Mr. Clemens suggests, therefore, that during the forty-two years of the copyright limitation the owner of the copyright shall be obliged to issue an edition of the book at the rate of twenty-five cents for each one hundred thousand words or less of its contents, and that the owner of the copyright shall be required to keep such an edition on sale thereafter, year after year, indefinitely. If in any year he shall fail to keep such an edition on sale during a space of

three months, the copyright shall perish. Such provision would meet the Government's sole purpose to secure a cheap edition for the public.

As to the question of how the proposed rate would apply in the case of well-known books of the present day, Mr. Clemens cites his own books as illustrations. "Huckleberry Finn," for instance, contains 70,000 words; its present price is \$1.50. An edition of it would have to be kept permanently on sale at 25 cents. The same would be true in regard to "Tom Sawyer." Several of Mr. Clemens' two-volume books contain a trifle more than 100,000 words per volume, and the present price is \$1.75 per volume.

The cheap-edition price would be 75 cents per volume. All his works together, being twenty-three volumes, are now selling for \$36.50. They might be comprised in ten volumes of something more than 200,000 words each. Mr. Clemens estimates that the printer and binder would get their usual percentage of profit, the middleman would get his usual commission on sales, while the profit to the author and publisher would be very small. Still, it would be to the advantage of the holder of the copyright to print his cheap editions first, because the books would remain in the hands of the author's estate, and, second, because the cheap edition would advertise the higher-priced editions.

### THE NEGLECTED AUTHOR OF "DIXIE."

A REMARKABLY checkered career, with little or nothing to show for a life of genius, with an obscure death to crown it,—such was the life of Daniel Decatur Emmett, always known as Dan Emmett, author of the famous song, "Dixie." In an article in the *Lamp*, under the title "Does It Pay to Be Famous?" Mr. William D. Hall sketches the life of Dan Emmett, and tells how one of the most famous songs in American history was written. In Emmett's own words:

The original title of my "Dixie" song was "I Wish I Was in Dixie's Land." It was written, or, rather, finished, when I was a member of Dan Bryant's minstrels, then located at Mechanics' Hall, 470 Broadway, New York City. I went with Bryant in '59, and "Dixie"

was written a year later, but not on a rainy Sunday, as is generally supposed and certain Boswells have seen fit to put it. The idea for "Dixie" was conceived long before my joining Bryant. "I wish I was in Dixie" was a circus expression that I had heard up North while traveling with canvas shows. In those days, all below the Mason and Dixon line was considered South, and it was a common occurrence, of a cold day, when traveling through the North, to hear a shivering circus man remark, "I wish I was in Dixie's land." "Dixie" never impressed me as being as good a song as "Old Dan Tucker," which was one of my first compositions, but "Dixie" caught on from the first, and before I knew it, it had taken the country by storm. We kept "Dixie" on for six seasons. I always look upon the song as an accident. One Saturday night, Dan Bryant requested me to write a walk-around for the following week. The time allotted me was unreasonably short, but, not-

*Dixie's Land.*  
 Composed by Daniel D. Emmett in N. York. 1859.

*Song*  
 Allegro. I wish I was in Dixie's land, old times darum

*Chorus*  
 not for-got-ten, look-a-way! look-a-way! look-a-way! Dixie

withstanding, I went to my hotel and tried to think out something suitable, but my thinking apparatus was dormant; then, rather than disappoint Bryant, I searched through my trunk and resurrected the manuscript of "I Wish I Was in Dixie's Land," which I had written years before. I changed the tempo and rewrote some of the verses, and in all likelihood, if Dan Bryant had not made that hurry-up request "Dixie" never would have been brought out.

The song never brought any income or fame to Mr. Emmett while he lived, and yet, says Mr. Hall, in these few words we have the true history of a song that is as sacred to a Southerner as the Holy Bible. "It is the history of a composition that holds the same footing in the musical firmament that 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' does in that of literature."

## HAS THE RUSSIAN CENSORSHIP REALLY BEEN RELAXED?

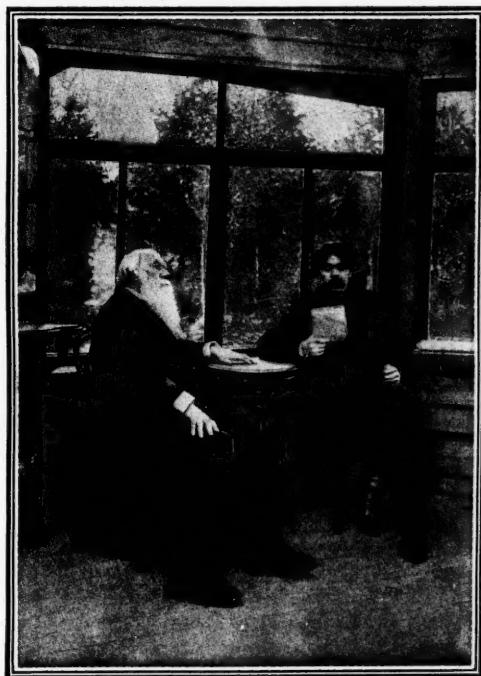
THE undefined and uncertain position of the Russian press is made the subject of two editorials in recent numbers of the *Russkiya Vedomosti* (Moscow). The writer notes the subtle change that has taken place within the past few weeks in the subject-matter as well as in the tone of the newspaper articles. More remarkable still is the comparative freedom with which certain national problems are now discussed, problems that the periodical press dared not even allude to in the very recent past. There is no doubt that with the assumption of authority by the new minister of the interior the condition of the Russian press was changed for the better. This will not be denied. Prince Svyatopolk-Mirski has loosened the vise that had kept Russian periodicals under pressure for so many years.

This is unquestionably an important service rendered by the present minister of the interior; nevertheless, the legal status of the press has undergone no change. As formerly, everything is governed by the personal attitude of the officials, with this difference, that formerly this attitude was hostile, while now it is friendly. Yet what assurance have we that the latter may not again be changed to the former? Our press legislation has endowed the administration with great arbitrary power. Our press is tolerated only so far as it is convenient for the persons who at any given time happen to be at the head of affairs. Even the best-intentioned minister of the interior cannot secure for the Russian press a stable position under the existing laws. He is unable to do this, not alone because of his ignorance of his successor and of his successor's views on the subject, but also because the administrative punitive mechanism created by press-censorship regulations is not confined to the jurisdiction of the ministry of the interior. While the latter alone is charged with the execution of the law, any other ministry or department may decide that the publication of certain articles would be inconvenient. Moreover, any minister may propose the suspension of a periodical which in his opinion may prove detrimental to the interests of the administration. Since such suspension is usually discussed at the council of ministers, instances may occur where the suspension is decided upon contrary to the wishes of the minister of the interior. While the latter has the power to suppress any periodical, or even to suppress completely

the publication of all periodicals, he has not the power to resist the pressure brought to bear by the other ministries.

The writer concludes, therefore, that it is not possible to establish for the Russian press a position of permanence and authority as based merely on the good-will of one or another of the ministers. Security from the changing tendencies may be secured only by guaranties founded on basic law.

In another editorial, the writer refers to the necessity of replacing administrative punishment by the responsibility of the press before



MAXIM GORKY READING THE MANUSCRIPT OF HIS LATEST WORK (WHICH HAS BEEN BANNED BY THE CENSOR) TO THE RUSSIAN ART CRITIC, W. STASOFF.

the courts alone. This has been pointed out repeatedly by various periodicals, among them the *Russkija Vjedomosti*. "A new occasion for the emphasis of this thought is offered by two recent incidents, wherein two periodical publications were meted out administrative punishment. Even

here there is no clear statement as to what really constitutes a dangerous tendency, what thoughts and opinions are considered deserving of punishment or warning." The *Vjedomosti* has been one of the strongest advocates of more liberal press laws.

### KATHERINE BERESHKOVSKA,—A RUSSIAN REVOLUTIONIST.

**A**N embodiment of the entire Russian revolutionary movement, in one heroic figure, is offered by the life and work of Katherine Bereshkovska, who recently arrived in this country to lecture on the present internal condition of Russia and the socialistic revolutionary movement there. In an interview and character sketch by Mr. Ernest Poole which appears in the *Outlook*, her personality is summed up thus:

Daughter of a nobleman and earnest philanthropist; then revolutionist, hard-labor convict, and exile for twenty-three years in Siberia; and now an heroic old

Russia shall be free. See"—she showed me bulletins that had followed her to New York. "Day and night they work. In place of sleep, a dream of freedom; in place of warmth and food and drink, the same dream. This dream is old in American breasts."

Few women have suffered and experienced the horrors, the anguish, and the hardships which have been crowded into this one life. Her study of the Russian peasant, gained in a life of devotion, which included years of exile in Siberia, shows him to be a most abject creature. After liberation from serfdom, he was bewildered, and, unable to meet the new conditions, almost begged to be put back into dependency upon a master. Madame Bereshkovska never spared herself in her campaign of education and organization. She dressed as a peasant, and did her organizing by night. She assisted in the birth of the Russian People's party. She gives this picture of a meeting in a peasant's hut:

"A low room, with mud floor and walls. Rafters just over your head, and still higher, thatch. The room was packed with men, women, and children. Two big fellows sat up on the high brick stove, with their dangling feet knocking occasional applause. These people had been gathered by my host—a brave peasant whom I picked out—and he in turn had chosen only those whom Siberia could not terrify. When I recalled their floggings; when I pointed to those who were crippled for life; to women whose husbands died under the lash,—then men would cry out so fiercely that the three or four cattle in the next room would bellow and have to be quieted. Then I told them they themselves were to blame. They had only the most wretched strips of land. To be free and live, the people must own the land! From my cloak I would bring a book of fables written to teach our principles and stir the love of freedom. And then far into the night the firelight showed a circle of great broad faces and dilated eyes, staring with all the reverence every peasant has for that mysterious thing—a book."

#### HOW THE REVOLUTIONISTS WORK.

The programme and prospects of the Socialist-Revolutionist party, of which she is a member, she gives in these sentences:

"To the peasant we teach the old lesson. To reach freedom—first, the land must be owned by the people; second, the System of the Czar must be swept away. There is not a province in Russia where our literature does not go. The underground mails run smoothly



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MADAME KATHERINE BERESHKOVSKA AS SHE IS TO-DAY.

woman of sixty-one, she has plunged again into the dangerous struggle for freedom. The Russian revolutionary movement is embodied in this one heroic figure

"Babushka"—little grandmother—as she is known among her fellow-workers, believes that in a few months Russia's oppressed subjects will rise by millions. The time has almost come, she told Mr. Poole.

"We shall sweep away the System of the Czar, and



now. Scores of presses work ceaselessly in Switzerland, safe from capture. Not to take useless risks, our central committee is scattered all through Russia; it rarely meets, but it constantly plans through cipher letters and directs the local committees, which in turn guide the small local committees, and so down to the little peasant and laborer groups that meet to-night by thousands in huts and city tenements. . . . Few believe in assassination. Revolution by the whole people is our one object, and for this the time is near. The Japanese war has caused the deepest bitterness ever felt in Russia; to the six hundred and sixty-four thousand lives lost in a century of useless wars, now over a hundred thousand will be added, and every hamlet will mourn its dead. Then will our four hundred thousand workers call on the millions around them to rise for freedom. Arms? There are plenty. Why in recent riots have soldiers refused to fire on the crowd? Because all through the army are soldiers, and even officers, working secretly for the cause. Arms—yes, and brains—for in the universities and in every profession are wise, resolute men to guide the wild passions of revolt. In the zemstvos are hundreds of officials straining to hasten our struggle. So in this last year the movement has suddenly swelled. Already four hundred thousand strong! Day and night they work. In place of sleep and food and drink—the dream of freedom. Freedom to think and speak! Freedom to work! Justice to all!”

#### The Dawn of a Brighter Day.

In an article which she contributes to the *Independent*, Madame Bereshkovska speaks of the hopeful signs of the future in Russia, and says:

Our great hopes are coming true. Twenty years passed and Russia is unrecognizable. Her entire complexion is changed. The blood shed by her best children, drop by drop, entered the veins of the Russian people, inciting them to a struggle for their rights. In Siberia, one can see the nucleus of educated men and women surrounded by hundreds, thousands, of people, laborers and peasants, of all nationalities within the boundaries of the empire. . . . In spite of the Autocrat's rule, the Russians have the opportunity, thanks to the proximity of European nations, to study, to observe, to compare their conditions with those of Europe. High was the price paid by Russia for her awakening and development. Now we Russians proudly and rejoicingly take the hand of the cultured and free, and solemnly guarantee our ability to fill an honorable place among civilized nations. The hour has struck. The thick cloud of gloom dispersed and Russia beheld the light. Through the whizz of bullets slaying our brothers in the far East, through the haze of the Orthodox incense burned before the Orthodox ikons, the people hear the call to progress and note the stages to be passed on the way to honor and freedom.

### WHOLESALE DESERTIONS FROM THE RUSSIAN ARMY.

THE issuance of the mobilization order in the kingdom of Poland,—or, rather, in the Warsaw military district,—has occasioned an extraordinary influx of deserters to Austrian Poland, especially to Cracow. There has, indeed, been an influx of deserters to Austrian Poland since the beginning of the war, and this influx increased considerably about four months ago, when the mobilization order was issued in the Odessa district. In the course of a short while following the issuance of that order, there came to Galicia and Bukovina about four thousand deserters. Now the desertion has assumed enormous proportions. To Cracow there come daily a hundred or more deserters. According to the Cracow police, there have been days when there traveled by the railroad through that city from six hundred to one thousand deserters. A considerable number of these fugitives are going to America. The reservists are fleeing, not only from the kingdom of Poland, but also from Volhynia, Podolia, Ukraina, New Russia (the Odessa district), and even from the governments of central Russia. Most of the fugitives are Jews; but from the kingdom of Poland there have fled many Polish reservists, a considerable percentage of whom belong to the intelligent classes. Besides these, there are fleeing Ruthenians, and even native Muscovites.

More and more frequently there appear deserters from the troops stationed near the frontier, at the rumor, generally unfounded, that the divisions to which they belong are to be sent to Manchuria.

The reservists from the kingdom of Poland flee, not only to Austrian Poland, but also to Prussian Poland. The Prussian authorities, however, seize and deliver to Russia deserters, especially those who do not have tickets for passage on the German steamers to America, or at least the sum of money needed for such passage. A recent dispatch from Thorn to a Vienna journal stated that at Gollub, in West Prussia, there were two thousand deserters from the governments of Plock and Warsaw. This figure, in conjunction with those presented above, gives a notion of the dimensions of the movement. The *London Times'* Russian correspondents informed that journal, in the early part of November, that competent opinion puts the number of reservists that have escaped so far at not less than twenty thousand. Deserters generally steal across the frontier with the aid of smugglers, or they cross the frontier at certain points where the Russian officials treat the passing of deserters, at a fee decided on in advance, as a profitable business. The Russian Government is taking extraordinary measures against this desertion.

In some places, as at Sosnowise and at Dombrowka, it has provided the frontier guards with dogs specially trained for the tracking of fugitives. According to reports, up to the present about a score of men crossing the frontier have been killed, while several hundred have been captured. This multitudinous desertion is a very significant and politically important phenomenon, observes a writer in the Cracow *Przeglad Wszelchpolski* (Pan-Polish Review).<sup>1</sup>

In no state in analogical circumstances has there been heretofore the case of a considerable part of the population evading military service, fleeing abroad, and abandoning families, occupations, positions,—frequently very good ones,—renouncing the right to return to their country. It is true that the desertion prevails chiefly in the borderlands of the Russian Empire. But those borderlands,—the kingdoms of Poland, Lithuania, Volhynia, Podolia, Ukraina, the Baltic governments, Finland, Bessarabia, New Russia,—constitute almost one-half of European Russia in point of population. Naturally, the desertion must prevail chiefly in the border provinces, since from the interior governments a multitudinous flight of reservists abroad is clearly impossible. There, however, the reservists protest, or even revolt or become tramps. A considerable number of native Muscovites flee from the regiments stationed on the frontier, however. And the desertions of officers, occurring quite frequently, are not single cases, but rather characteristic symptoms of the governmental and moral disorganization of Russia. Admitting, however, that it is only in the borderlands that the population is evading military service in the bulk, this fact indicates that the borderlands,—and these are principally the Polish districts,—have no solidarity with the Russian state in its tendencies and interests; that they are, in fact, hostilely disposed toward Russia. This hostile disposition must be very forcible, since it drives men to risk their whole future, to sacrifice their personal interests. And it must also not be forgotten that, omitting the Jews, this desertion prevails chiefly among the Polish population (in some degree, among the Ruthenian and Lithuanian populations), furnishing

hitherto to the state the best soldiers, of a character rather inclined to display their valor than to avoid the hardships and perils of military service. It is certainly impossible that in such a short period of time there could have altered so radically the character of the nation which, in the conviction of Russian, Austrian, and Prussian specialists, gives to-day excellent military material. Indeed, even in the war which is at present being waged in Manchuria, the Poles have proved the best soldiers in the Russian army. Even those who fled to the Japanese from the Russian army in Manchuria became indignant at the supposition that fear could have driven them to that step, for, as it turned out, they fled to the Japanese just in the hope that under the Japanese colors they would have a chance to fight the Muscovites.

If the general desertion in Russia is a symptom of governmental disorganization and weak national feeling, says the Polish writer, in conclusion, "the multitudinous desertion of the Polish reservists proves, on the contrary, the increase of the national feeling among our peasants and such an augmentation of political intelligence that its dictates find obedience even when they stand in opposition to the national instincts, inbred or acquired by warlike tradition.

For a true Pole by blood, by instincts, by historical tradition, in whose individuality there are impressed strongly all the characteristic features of the national character and temperament,—all the characteristic features, favorable and unfavorable as well,—must be converted inwardly, must alter his nature, in order to become a deserter, and it is more difficult for him to decide on this inward alteration than on the change—frequently very radical—of the external conditions of his existence as a result of his desertion,—the forfeiture of position, the breaking off of family ties, etc. The political motives,—intellectual and sentimental as well,—which cause this inward conversion must, therefore, be immensely forcible. He must understand,—not only understand, but also believe and feel,—that in the present situation it is a crime for a Pole to fight for Russia and aid her to victory.

## ORIENTAL IDEALS AS AFFECTED BY THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

WHETHER Japan be victorious or defeated in her great struggle with her mighty foe, the moral victory of the Japanese people "seems already to be absolutely complete, and it is impossible to overestimate the value of it." This is the verdict of *New India*, the "twice-a-week journal of civilization," published in Calcutta. By proving her moral superiority to "all the color-proud civilizations of the Western world, Japan has already rendered a service to modern humanity the full value and significance of which history and human evolution in the

centuries alone can reveal." This Indian journal believes that the contact of Europe with Asia up to the present has always had a demoralizing effect on both continents.

The vulture-sweep with which Europe did suddenly come down and pounce upon Asia has had a most demoralizing effect on her. But if Europe has demoralized Asia by her very physical powers and skill, Asia, too, has no less demoralized Europe by even her very feebleness and incapacity. In God's world, every wrong inevitably rebounds on its own agent, and brings its own retribution with itself. The physical and moral emasculation that has resulted from the impact of

Europe on Asia is shared equally by both the parties, and a demonstration of the innate moral excellences of the Asiatic character and Asiatic civilization was absolutely needed to save the present situation. Japan's moral victory over Russia will have, therefore, an elevating influence over the entire modern world.

Europe has always admitted the high physical and spiritual ideals of Asiatic civilizations, but has always asked, "How is it that, claiming such superior moral and spiritual ideals, you Asiatics are so low in the councils of nations?"

The political weakness and servitude of the Asiatic peoples whenever they have come in contact with European nations, their patent inability to withstand the onslaughts of modern civilizations, have hitherto been regarded, all over Europe and America, as an unerring proof of their inherent moral inferiority. For Europe has not as yet lost her conceit that her physical powers and capabilities are due to her moral superiority, and as long as Asia does not prove her equality to Europe in mere physical strength and military prowess there is absolutely no chance of her higher ethical, artistic, or spiritual ideals ever adequately influencing the character and culture of the European peoples.

The present war has been of immense value, declares the editor of *New India*, to the cause of modern humanity, because of the proof it has given of the physical and military capabilities of at least one Asiatic people. These capabilities, the writer believes, are latent in other Asiatic peoples, notably those of British India. The real secret of Japanese success, however, this editor claims (and quotes from European journals in support of his contention), lies not so much in their superior physical as in their superior moral qualities. "Japan has proved the reality of her own physical and spiritual ideals." The old attitude of Europe toward the ideals of the East is therefore changing, and as a result of the present war, concludes *New India*, "modern humanity will be bound to enter upon a new phase of culture and evolution which is evidently so pregnant with almost infinite possibilities for good."

#### A Defensive Oriental Alliance.

*Buddhism*, the quarterly review published in Rangoon, Burma, in commenting on the far-Eastern war, remarks that a defensive Oriental alliance is one of the probabilities of the future. This would really be a desirable consummation, asserts the review in question, which says:

The victory of Japan might well result in a great advantage to the peace and prosperity and true religiousness of the world. A long course of unjustifiable aggressions has brought China to a state of fatalistic acquiescence in its own helplessness, a view which will, without doubt, terminate when the knowledge of Japanese success spreads through the vast empire of China. It would, we think, be no great wonder if a few years after the conclusion of this war saw the completion of a defensive alliance between Japan, China,

and not impossibly Siam,—the formulation of a new Monroe Doctrine for the far East, guaranteeing the integrity of existing states against further aggression from the West. When we consider how much, once Occidental methods were forced by stress of circumstances upon them, Japan's forty millions have been able to accomplish in so short a time, there can be but little doubt that once the reform party get the upper hand in China the four hundred millions of that enormous empire will be able to accomplish no less. And such a new dual or triple alliance of the Buddhist powers of the East as we have suggested would be one of the surest and speediest methods of bringing about universal peace. Not only would many possible causes of war between Western nations (in quarrels over their respective "spheres of influence," etc.) be abolished, but the mere formation of an alliance of such tremendous power as this would ere long become of itself a menace so great in the eyes of Western politicians that these would at last be compelled to carry out that obvious remedy for international strife, partial disarmament and arbitration, which reason seems powerless to induce them to effect. For the Western nations,—at least the Continental powers,—have already a greater burden in their colossal armaments and compulsory military service than they can well support.

As to the "Yellow Peril," *Buddhism* declares the idea "arrant nonsense." Besides, it is unphilosophical.

The West has justified,—perhaps with some reason,—every aggression on weaker races by the doctrine of the Survival of the Fittest; on the ground that it is best for future humanity that the unfit should be eliminated and give place to the most able race. That doctrine applies equally well to any possible struggle between Aryan and Mongolian,—whichever survives, should it ever come to a struggle between the two for world-mastery, will, on our own doctrine, be the one most fit to do so, and if the survivor be the Mongolian, then is the Mongolian no "peril" to humanity, but the better part of it. Truly, the world is wide enough for both these two great branches of the human family, and whatsoever is great and noble in these two races will survive in their respective spheres long after war and all its foolishness and weakness has ended in the Universal Brotherhood of Man.

#### Suicide and the New Japan.

A number of the Japanese reviews are publishing articles calling attention to the fact that the old ideal of suicide in the event of unsuccessful military operations must be replaced by a new ideal which places a higher value on life, when it could be honorably supported, than on death for a mere punctilio. Two of the reviews, the *Kirisutokyo Sekai* and the *Nichiyo Soshi*, express indignation and alarm over the recklessness with which the Japanese run to death and take their own lives. This, says a writer in the first-named magazine, is really a mental aberration,—we mean the idea which makes a Japanese commit suicide rather than fall into the hands of the Russians. Such a death is almost

a crime against the fatherland, which has the need for men to live and to succeed. It is good and honorable, says the *Nichiyo Soshi*, to fight even until death, but it is criminal to take away one's life and thus deprive the state of services which are its due. The courage to live under

certain circumstances is greatly superior to that which is required in committing suicide. The ancient samurai conception, concludes this Japanese magazine, was a false one. It will not do to hold to it in these days. It has already cost Japan too many valuable lives.

## THE CLEVER, UNFORTUNATE EMPEROR OF KOREA.

A VIVID pen picture of the present ruler of the Hermit Empire has been published by an anonymous writer in the latest issue of the *Taiyo* (Tokio). The author refers to the Korean sovereign as "our Emperor," and to the Korean Empire as "my country," but it is hard-

that elicits the sympathy of those who come in contact with him. He has graceful manners, fluency of speech, a dignified yet obliging air, all of which, coupled with his deliberative but charming appearance, constitute a character that impresses one as that of an approachable private individual rather than as that of the ruler of an empire. He does not indorse the blind anti-foreign spirit, but is willing to receive foreigners at his court, many of whom have no official rank or degree of honor.

### A CREATION OF ANOMALOUS POLITICAL CONDITIONS.

In spite of such apparently admirable qualities, the writer believes the Emperor to be a creation of unfortunate circumstances. He acts so inconsistently that at one time he shows an extraordinary power of judgment and foresight, while at another he seems as though utterly devoid of wisdom and intelligence. He is essentially secretive, and schemes and contrives in the dark. Like a detective, he conceals his suspicious nature under a mask of polite manners and amiable appearance. He is ever trying to entangle in his toils not only foreign representatives at Seoul, but his own ministers as well. According to this writer, the reason for such unhappy moods and conducts of the Emperor can be sought for in the fact that his interest is thoroughly absorbed in the effort to maintain the safety and welfare of the present dynasty.

To him, every means is justifiable that would accrue to the strength and stability of his court. In his opinion, the safety of his royal throne should have precedence even over the welfare of his subjects and the very independence of his country. When Japan declared war against China for the avowed purpose of preserving the independence of the Hermit Empire, the Emperor was an indifferent onlooker, because in his eyes the safety of his royal family was more precious than his country itself. To him, the formal independence of his country is valueless unless it guarantee the stability of the reigning dynasty. He would not mind the interference of the powers, provided such an interference would tend to strengthen his royal family against the aggressive cliques and nepotists into which his court has been divided, causing unceasing disturbances and strife within the walls of the royal palace. Some of these factions stand by Japan, some favor Russian influence, while some cherish the old idea of a Chinese-Korean union, each with the view to utilizing the assistance of outside powers in its efforts to enthrone a puppet prince under its influence. Why should the Em-



DR. HOMER B. HULBERT, PRINCIPAL OF THE ROYAL NORMAL COLLEGE, AT SEOUL, EDITOR OF THE "KOREA REVIEW," ADVISER TO THE EMPEROR OF KOREA.

ly believed that he is a subject of the peninsular empire. He opens his description by declaring the Emperor to be the cleverest of all the rulers belonging to the present dynasty of Korea, and the most sagacious in the entire court of Seoul. "Our Emperor is the actual leader in political activities in the Korean capital. He personally supervises and attends to internal and foreign affairs, great or small, without asking the opinion of his ministers."

The Emperor possesses a certain magnetic power



peror rejoice over the declaration of independence of his country when his throne is not made a straw safer by it? Such anomalous political conditions all conspired to pervert the character of the Emperor, who has been made the most secretive, and even deceitful, of rulers.

#### HOW JAPAN SHOULD DEAL WITH THE EMPEROR.

Four hundred and sixty years have elapsed since the inauguration of the present Korean dynasty. During this period, only two or three of the sovereigns assumed the real reins of state, the rest being mere figureheads behind the powerful cliques of nobility; consequently, the royal family has been always on the verge of poverty.

Prior to his ascension to the throne, the present Emperor had been leading a miserably lowly life among the lower classes of people. His father, though a royal personage, had been obliged to support his family by dealing in curios. Thus, the Emperor had thoroughly experienced the woe and weal of the common life.

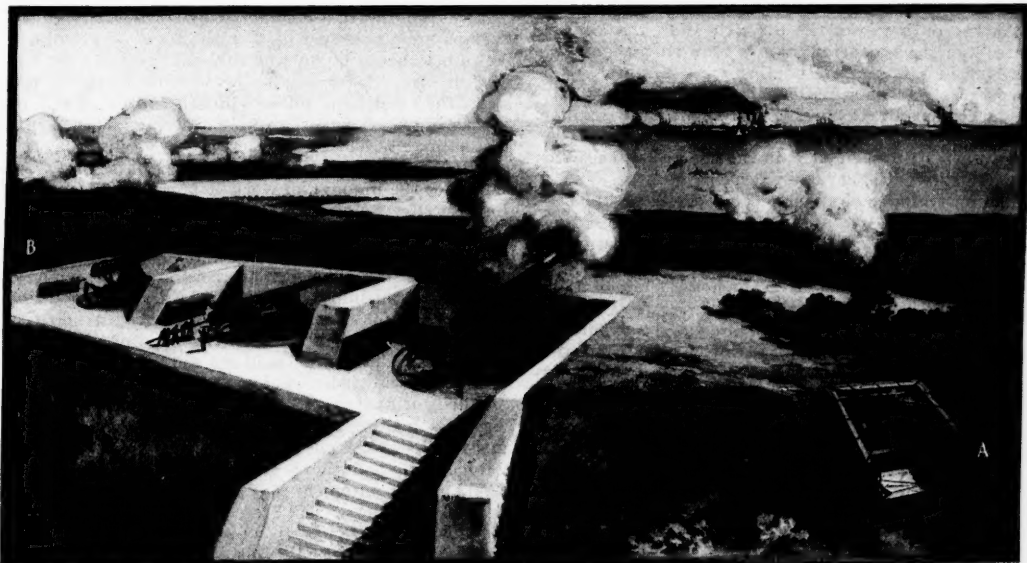
That he was not by nature an ambitious intriguer is evidenced by the fact that he entreated his supporters, with tears and supplications, to let him remain a private person when one of the court factions slated him for the throne. Having entered the court, however, his natural sincerity has been overshadowed by the merciless intrigues of court officials and ladies.

To win the confidence and fidelity of the Emperor, Japan must demonstrate enough strength and power to convince him. As the means of accomplishing this, the writer recommends these four measures: (1) abolition of the privileges of nobility, which will lead to the termination of cliques and nepotism; (2) Korean representatives at foreign governments should be recalled; (3) the Korean army and navy should be replaced by the Japanese army and navy; (4) Japan should assume the police power throughout Korea.

### ELECTRICITY IN SEACOAST DEFENSE.

SINCE the defensive powers of modern seacoast fortifications have been made possible almost exclusively by the application of electricity, the present and future position of the military electrical engineer may be said to be as important as that of his brother engineer in industrial life. With this as his text, Mr. M. C. Sullivan contributes an article under the above title to the *Electrical Age*.

The present permanent seacoast defenses of the chief ports of the United States, Mr. Sullivan tells us, on both oceans, as now equipped for repelling naval attack, are "unrivalled by any in the world in design, construction, and equipment." Mr. Sullivan quotes figures of the expense connected with the equipment and maintenance of this defense, and says, by way of comment, "Do away with electricity and you



From the New York Herald.

FIRE CONTROL OF A MODERN FORTRESS.



From the New York Herald.

A TELEPHONE "CENTRAL" IN A MODERN FORTRESS.

make impossible the effective handling of the great guns and the ammunition that supplies them." It was not until 1898, however, he reminds us, that the military electrician, as such, was recognized in the United States army.

At the outbreak of the Spanish War, the United States Congress enacted a law requiring that two-thirds of the Volunteer Signal Corps membership should consist of electricians or telegraph operators. In 1890, an enactment by Congress, applying to the regular army, establishing the rank of electrician-sergeant, became a law. Subsequently, in the same year, the War Department established at Fortress Monroe, Va., a school for training electricians for service in our sea-coast defenses. Graduates of this school, on being assigned to regular duty, have the rank of electrician-sergeant. This school, greatly enlarged, has since been transferred to Fort Totten, on the north shore of Long Island, N. Y. In 1903, further enactment by Congress relating to the regular army augmented the force of electrician-sergeants, and also provided for the establishment of a body of twenty-five electrical experts to be known as master electricians.

The disposition of the new force in the regular army, he tells us, is like this :

One or more electrician-sergeants, as the case may require, are assigned to each fort, and a master electrician is detailed to each artillery district, which in most cases includes several forts. Following the initiative of the national government, the State of New York, in 1904, by an act of the Assembly, created the

rank of electrician-sergeant in the National Guard, and provided that four such experts shall be attached to each regiment of heavy artillery in the State. Thus, it will be seen that the national and State governments have accorded the electrician a permanent place in the national defensive forces. There are schools at Fort Myers, near Washington, D. C., and at Fort Wood, New York Harbor, which are officially designated by the War Department as signal schools. But these in reality are electrical schools, the instruction given at them being almost wholly electrical.

The great guns of a fortification, says Mr. Sullivan, are to-day manipulated by electricity. They are raised, lowered, moved to the right or left, supplied with ammunition, sighted and fired, all by means of this agent. Each large gun is controlled by means of two levers. One of these controls the motor which raises or depresses the gun, and the other controls the motor which directs the gun's horizontal movements. The ammunition hoists for bringing up charges of powder and shell also are operated easily and quickly by means of electric motors. To the artillerist, the determination of wind-velocity is of supreme importance. With the aid of the electric anemometer he is enabled to know to a nicety what the velocity of the wind is. Following a rather technical description of the actual operation of the effective power of electricity in illuminating fortifications and in furnishing the power for the working of the great guns, Mr. Sullivan concludes :

A seacoast fortification to-day is, then, dominated in almost every particular by electricity. From this it is readily seen that in order to operate a fort skilled electricians are a necessary part of the force. Indeed, the personnel should be superior to that engaged in similar work in civil life, for, while the work is practically the same, the conditions under which it is carried out in the army are, of necessity, more exacting and difficult. Unfortunately for the efficiency of the service, the electrical corps of the United States army is entirely too small for the amount of work it is called upon to do. Earnest efforts, however, are being made to correct this condition.

It seems to the ordinary mind that the ever-increasing deadliness and scientific precision of war, which is rapidly diminishing the value of the personal equation, must make for universal peace, for the war spirit of all time has been fostered by the hope of glory to be won through individual achievement and not through a superior knowledge of electrical science and the best methods of applying it. A certain imaginative writer has in a thrilling romance prophesied that the day was not far distant when the result of a war would hinge altogether upon the pressing of an electric button. Wild as this statement may appear, it is not as far removed from the present state of facts as existing conditions are from those of considerably less than a generation ago. Indeed, it is not at all beyond the realms of probability that war may before long be placed on a strictly and literal push-button basis.

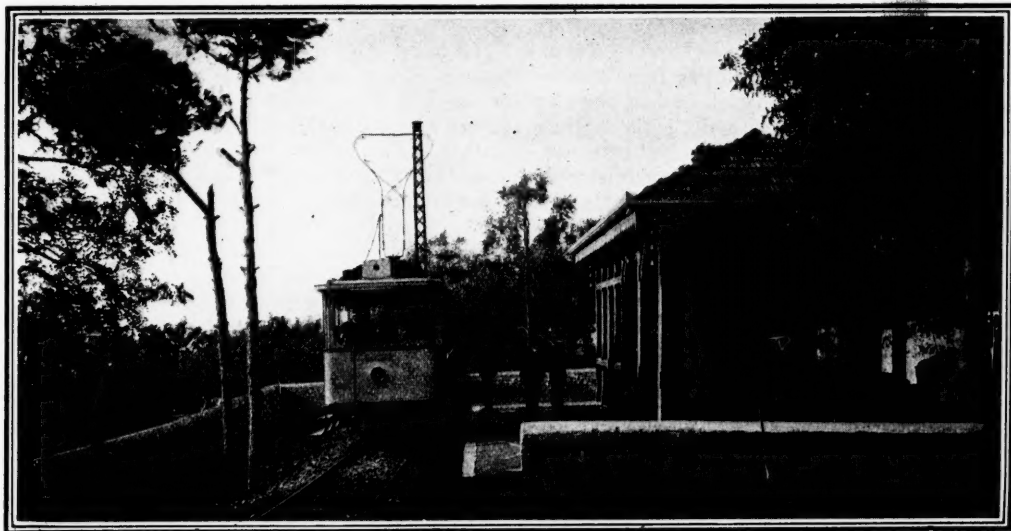
## UP VESUVIUS BY TROLLEY.

RECENT visitors to Mount Vesuvius speak with enthusiasm of the ease with which the trip to the summit is now taken by the aid of electric power. A writer in the *Technical World*, of Chicago, Mr. Frank C. Perkins, describes the experience of the traveler in riding from Naples to the crater of the volcano by trolley and cable road.

Several forms of traction are employed in making this journey. As far as Pugliano, the ordinary electric cars or trams used generally in Italian cities are used; from this point to the top of Vesuvius, one portion of the track is

and the electric cars carry the traveler by their own power past the Royal Observatory to the foot of the cone, where the funicular railway station is located. The scene has changed, as the mount is ascended, from beautiful gardens to a barren desert; and in the few minutes required for passing up the cable road to within a few hundred feet of the crater—which is finally reached by foot—dark-brown lava is noted on every side, frequently colored pink and green by the rays of the sun. The great cone of ashes is seen above the mountain of lava, over which rises a black column of smoke. The fields of petrified lava spread out in most curious and fantastic formations.

The highest section of the Mount Vesuvius



ELECTRIC CAR AND STATION ON ADHESION SECTION OF MOUNT VESUVIUS RAILWAY.

of rack-and-pinion construction, another is of ordinary adhesion traction, while the last section, which passes up the steep side of lava deposit to a point 3,875.5 feet above sea level, is a cable road.

The Vesuvius electric railway begins at the northern quarter of Resina, at Pugliano, and passes through a most interesting cultivated section, with vineyards, orchards, and gardens on every side, to the Royal Observatory, which is 595.75 meters (1,954.5 feet) above sea level. On the last portion of this section, where the train ascends the slope of Monte Cateroni, an electric locomotive is required for pushing the electric cars up the rack railway from the generating station at the foot of Monte Cateroni. This portion of the trip is most thrilling and interesting, as deep ravines, with intervening stretches of chestnut and acacia woods, are seen, while excellent views may be had of the Bay of Naples.

After reaching the "Hermitage," the electric locomotive is removed, as this is the end of the cog section,

railway is a cable road which was constructed many years ago. It was purchased in 1888 by the Cook tourist agency, and that corporation has lately completed the connecting electric road, nearly five miles in length, at a total cost of about \$250,000. Unusual provisions have been made for the safety of passengers. It is possible for the motorman on the front of each car to operate the brakes of the locomotive in the rear and to signal the engineer when necessary. Telephone communication is provided between all stations of the line and the power-house.

The electric locomotive on the rack railway is provided with emergency brakes as well as hand brakes, together with automatic brakes which are so arranged that the current is shut off when the speed of the locomotive exceeds the limit that has been decided upon.

## THE ITALIAN ELECTIONS AND DEAR BREAD.

COMMENT on the recent Italian elections occupies all the political departments of the Italian reviews. The composition of the new Chamber, subject to some changes from the revision of returns, is given by the *Italia Moderna* (Rome), as follows: Ministerialists, 343; constitutional opposition, 39; Radicals, 37; Republicans, 21; Socialists, 27; Clerical Conservatives, 2; uncertain, 14. This would make a reduction of the Extreme Left from 105 seats to 85, the Socialists losing 6, the Republicans 5, and the Radicals 9. The *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) figures that the Extreme Left has lost 13 seats, distributed as follows: Socialists, 2; Republicans, 2; Radicals, 9. It considers this loss still more significant of defeat for the Left because it has been in cities like Florence, Turin, Genoa, Milan, and Naples, places regarded by the three parties as their special citadels, and also districts that have more to do with shaping political tendencies than the rural constituencies. This review considers that it is especially a Socialist defeat, although the seats lost to that party are so few and the total number of votes cast for Socialist candidates was increased. The fundamental cause of reaction against socialism is stated to be disgust at the general strike due to Socialist tactics, and the violence and rioting arising from it. This reaction is quite largely among the poorer classes, that had been counted on chiefly by the Socialists. Interference with the liberty of commerce and of labor had shown even the workingmen that such tactics meant diminution of wealth and the lessening of work and wages.

The constitutional victory being thus rather fortuitous, the government and the constitutional party have now the work of carrying through a successful campaign, of which only the first battle has been won. The ministry must present a definite programme, and show itself active in carrying it out. "The first duty of the majority is to initiate a serious and effective parliamentary régime in Italy, with a truly representative government." As for the Republicans, the writer considers this group of little use in Italian politics. The impression is general that both rich and poor would be worse off under a republic. The Radicals, he considers, have an important mission, having often been the means of broadening institutions for the benefit of the people, and the suspicion that they are lukewarm friends of the present form of government the writer deems unjustified.

The increase of Socialist votes in the rural districts, even where the condition of the peas-

ants is best, shows the progress made by the propaganda of discontent, and points to the necessity of a vigorous agrarian policy. Finally, all parties are recommended to work together for civic education that will raise the standards of political action and prevent the regrettable disorder at the polls that required the intervention of the military. The partial participation of the Clericals at this election, this review thinks, will mean the organization of the Clericals as a constitutional party separate from the others, a more numerous registration of Clerical voters, and, finally, Clerical candidates. In this it sees no danger.

## VARIABLE TARIFF AS A REMEDY FOR DEAR BREAD.

In Italy, the price of bread is intimately connected with social rest or unrest, and every rise is considered and debated as a question of public policy, since it may result in disorder of serious nature. The bakeries of Rome, in November last, raised the price of bread three centesimi a kilogram, or about three mills a pound. Deputy Maggiorino Ferraris discusses the rise in relation to the political situation in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), as he did the same question in 1897 and 1898, when rioting came of it. Signor Ferraris finds that the price of bread varies from city to city in Italy, and, of course, even in the same city, and at the same bakery, according to quality and form of loaf. In Rome, there are two standards of prices,—one fixed by the Bakers' Association, the other by the Employees' Coöperative Society. The first runs from 33 centesimi for fourth quality to 48 centesimi for first quality, and the latter from 27 centesimi for fifth quality and 30 for fourth to 42 for the best, the latter not having, at this writing, raised its prices. The writer, and also Augusto Poggi, have urged the adoption in Italy of the Paris plan of fixing the price of bread.

There, the municipality every fortnight adjusts the price by adding to the price per quintal (220.46 pounds) of B quality flour the fixed number 13.179, which represents the cost of manufacture and sale, and the profit. The sum is divided by 128, the number of kilograms of bread supposed to be obtained from a quintal of flour, and the result is the official price per kilo of bread. Figuring the cost in Rome on this basis would give, at the maximum, 27 centesimi per kilo at current prices of flour, and actually that was the price fixed in Paris for the second half of October. Comparison is not quite fair, the Paris loaf being larger, and, on the other hand, Paris wages being higher. Part of the difference is due to the backward state of the industry and the small bakeries in Rome. . . . Taking the country as a whole, Signor Ferraris thinks there is urgent need to revise the tariff on grain and flour and adopt a



sliding scale according to price, so that the price of bread to the consumer may not fluctuate.

Italy does not produce enough grain for home consumption, but must import from 6,000,000 to 11,000,000 quintals (2,150,000 bushels to 4,000,000 bushels), which pays a duty of 7.50 lire a quintal, while flour pays a duty of 12.30 lire a quintal. Owing to the combination of the flouring mills, the importation of flour has been reduced to about 11,000 quintals (1,212 tons), and the cost of bread depends on the price of flour, and is affected by both duties. The writer does not believe it feasible to abolish this duty, as it would cause too great an agricultural revolution to throw present grain fields into meadows and vineyards, and would complicate city and country labor problems. It would also remove a revenue of sixty million

lire from the treasury that has served to allow the abolition of various onerous duties and taxes.

In such circumstances, the ministry hesitates to reduce the duty, knowing the perturbation of commerce that will ensue, and the uncertain durability of the price of grain makes hesitation more natural. The variable duty would provide for all these difficulties, make the grain trade stable, and in the long run the treasury would lose nothing, as in the years of low prices a reserve would accumulate to compensate for the reduction of duty in times like the present. According to this system, the duty would consist in the difference between the actual market price and a fixed rate of twenty-five lire a quintal. A variable-tariff bill was introduced in the Chamber in 1901, but not passed.

## THE TELEPHONE IN JAPAN.

JAPAN was not far behind this part of the world in the introduction of the telephone, but public exchanges were not opened until 1889. Prior to that time, the telephone had

*Cassier's* for January, it is stated that an executive office was opened in Tokio, and that letters and circulars were sent out to business men, to the nobility, to government officials, to manufacturers, and, in fact, to persons of prominence generally. A switchboard and telephones were installed in the building of the Tokio Chamber of Commerce, and in the exchanges, and people were invited to try the instruments in order to be convinced of their utility. Popular lectures were delivered, also, to give the public an idea of the commercial and social uses of the telephone.

Notwithstanding these unusual efforts, only about seventy contracts for telephones had been obtained in Tokio, and twenty in Yokohama, when the construction of the lines was begun.

The service was started in Tokio and Yokohama in December of 1890, the number of subscribers at that time being about two hundred in Tokio and forty in Yokohama. However, the actual opening of the exchanges and establishment of communication between the subscribers spoke far more eloquently to the public than any letters, newspapers, or lectures, and before long the facilities were far behind the demand. At the present time, 46 telephone exchanges are in operation, with 36,700 sub-stations. The seven largest exchanges, worked with multiple switchboards, are in the towns of Tokio, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Kobe, Nagoya, and Nagasaki, serving over 28,000 subscribers in a population of 3,920,000. The automatic telephone has come into use since 1899. In the towns named, 117 automatic call offices are in use.



AUTOMATIC TELEPHONE CALL-BOX IN A STREET OF TOKIO.

been used in auxiliary police service only. The work of establishing exchanges was finally undertaken as a government monopoly. In a paper by Saitoro Oi, read before the International Electrical Congress at St. Louis and quoted in

## THE ROMANCE OF THE FRENCH RACE.

THE leading article in *La Revue* for its two November numbers is by the editor himself, M. Jean Finot. It is entitled "The Romance of the French Race," and is an impassioned study of the origin and development of the French people and the French intellect. Next year, M. Finot is going to publish a book on race prejudice, from the anthropological and psychological point of view, and the present article would seem to be a sort of epitome of the volume.

For more than a century, M. Finot says, the civilized world has been under the influence of an idea which reacts strangely on its destinies,—namely, the race idea, which has become almost a sacred dogma. Every kind of stupidity is committed in the name of race, and philosophers, writers, politicians, sociologists, are all the conscious or unconscious victims of the idea. Yet the word is nothing more than an abstract term. The names Celtic, or Gallic, Germanic, Aryan, are words without sense, and their importance lies only in what we choose to attribute to them.

## THE ARYAN MYTH.

Coming to the French nation in particular, M. Finot begins with the Aryan myth. That the French are descended in direct line from the Aryans has become quite an axiom. In consequence, modern sociologists, historians, and politicians have never ceased to contrast the Aryan with other Semitic and Mongol nations, and the Aryan origin has been made the benevolent source of the great mental superiority and the virtues of Europeans compared with other peoples and civilizations. But when we look more closely at the Aryan dogma, we soon perceive that it is only a phantom. Quite recently, K. Hartmann and others have informed us that the so-called Aryans never existed as a primitive people, except in the imagination of arm-chair scholars. Nevertheless, it is strange that scientific writers, otherwise so prudent, should have adopted a thesis which nothing could justify, and that the authenticity of the myth should have been believed in by nine hundred and ninety-nine out of every thousand educated persons. M. Finot goes on to show that even the Aryan language idea is based on a misunderstanding.

## CAN THE FRENCH BE CALLED GAULS?

The French and the Gauls are terms identified together. The French are proud of the Gallo-Celtic blood in their veins, and the Germans on the other side of the Rhine hate the French be-

cause of their Celtic blood. Have the French and the Germans not been taught from time immemorial that the Gauls and the Germanic race had virtues and customs diametrically opposed? And have they not ended by believing these facts, the authenticity of which has never been suspected? To-day, it seems sacrilege to express the smallest doubt as to the French being direct descendants of the Gauls. But M. Finot proceeds forthwith to commit this act of sacrilege. He is convinced that there were other races in France before the Gauls made their appearance on French soil.

What was this Gaul which La Tour d'Auvergne described as the cradle of humanity, and what was her language, the mother-language of so many other languages? M. Finot asks. According to this scientist and his partisans, Gaul was responsible for all that historians and linguists have wrongly attributed to the mysterious Asiatic Aryan. The Gauls gradually spread themselves over the greater part of ancient Europe, and even founded settlements in Galatia. Reflecting, then, on the great ramifications in Europe of this race, it is, to say the least, paradoxical to state that Gaul is France, and that the Gauls were the French.

In the third century B.C., the power of the Gauls was attacked on all sides. The Germanic race, the Romans, Greeks, Carthaginians, by a series of invasions, sought to break the power of Gaul and reduce the people to slavery. And as the Celtic era in Gaul gave place to Roman sway, the Roman dominion had to give way before the double Germanic invasion consequent on the great migration of peoples from the second to the sixth centuries of the Christian era. Succeeding centuries brought no rest to Europe.

How, again, can we speak of Gallic blood predominating in the French when it is remembered that about the fifteenth century the Germans devastated the country and transformed it into a desert, at the same time taking the inhabitants into captivity? And besides the Teutons, there were other irruptions. France, in fact, has been the grave of men of all sorts of races,—Russian Mongols, Semitic Arabs, Germans, Normans, Visigoths, Burgundians, Franks, etc. M. Finot gives a few details of the various invasions, and ends by giving a list of the races who may be said to have contributed to the formation of the French blood—about fifty, not counting subdivisions or certain odd races, such as the Tziganes, of whose origin as little is known as is known of the negro race, whose early existence has also been traced in France!

When we remember that for centuries the Germanic race gave shelter to numerous Gallic tribes, we are indeed tempted to say that in Germany to-day there is probably more Gallic blood than in France, while the conquests of the Burgundians, the Visigoths, the Franks, and the Normans have, perhaps, inoculated France with more German blood than there is in Germany to-day. Two points are clear: France does not owe her dominating qualities to the Gauls, and if Gallic descent must absolutely be attributed to a European nation, that nation is certainly Germany. Thus, we have a nice imbroglio. The French have become Germanic, and the Germanic race Gauls.

#### THE LATIN FIGMENT.

In the second installment, M. Finot begins with the Latin doctrine. The French, in proclaiming themselves a Latin people, give us occasion to admire their evangelical humility. At a time when so many of the small Latin republics are startling the world by the incoherence of their social and political life, to wish to belong to the Latin family savors of the heroic. The French-Latins have been contrasted with the insular Anglo-Saxons, the former having all the vices and the latter all the virtues. A whole French pessimistic literature has come into existence, full of distrust of France and discouragement for her future. There has been a constant vociferation as to the inferiority of France, and how detrimental it was has been shown by the moral torpor into which France had fallen for a time.

Happily, however, France has begun to take courage again. The sudden awakening of Italy gives the lie to Latin decadence; the South African war has shown up the serious weaknesses of the British; the discovery of corruption in

Germany has opened French eyes with regard to her; and the present Russo-Japanese war shows that the pretended youth of the Russian people does not mean moral and material health. France breathes more freely, and is reconsidering her rôle of a great people who, while commanding universal respect, guides humanity to noble ends. She has at last come to understand that her past, her present, and her great moral future is not to be limited to ethnic origins. In considering her destiny, she realizes that her genealogy is widely human rather than narrowly Latin.

From the intellectual point of view, however, France may be characterized as a Latin country—an important difference. As England was influenced by the Norman Conquest, but in time emancipated herself and followed her own course, while preserving the language and some ideas from the other side of the Channel, France, after having been under Latin influence, returned later to an intellectuality more in keeping with her position in the world and the aptitude of her people.

#### WHAT IS THE FRENCH NATION?

The psychology of the French, concludes M. Finot, is most complex, the nation being the result of a supreme comprehension and adaptation of the intellectual conquests of all civilized countries enriched by its own essential mental qualities. As in philosophy and the arts, France gradually freed herself from Latin influence, the movement of liberation has taken place in other domains of her literary, political, and moral life. Mixed up with many other factors, the Latin element has lost its preponderance, for all nations are amalgamated in her intellectual as well as in her ethnic life, and being a mixture of so many races, the French is endowed with an innate sympathy toward other races.

### THE RESULTS OF MALTHUSIANISM IN FRANCE.

THE question of the depopulation of France has long been an anxious one, and now, in *La Revue*, Charles Duffart discusses the problem, contending that the cause of the evil is due to Malthusianism, and suggesting certain reforms which France ought to adopt to be saved.

From the time of Louis XIV. to the Revolution, France, says the writer, was more densely populated than any other European country. Her population equaled that of England and Germany together, and notwithstanding the misery of the people under Louis XV., it still counted twenty-five millions in 1789. In this fact lay

the secret of the triumphs of the French against the foreign coalition in 1792, when the population of Germany numbered only fourteen millions, and England, including hostile Ireland, twelve millions. At the end of the eighteenth century, France alone contained 28 per cent. of the total population of the great European powers. In 1826,—after the wars of the Revolution, after the Empire and the Restoration,—however, Germany had twenty-eight millions of inhabitants, and England twenty-three millions, so that, united, these nations were therefore able to show against France a menacing economic and

belligerent vitality just double her own. This perilous situation continued, and after the disasters of 1872, Malthusian France, with only thirty-six millions of inhabitants remaining to her, found herself face to face with prolific England and Germany,—the former with thirty-two millions and the latter with forty-one millions.

In 1881, the population of France amounted to only thirty-seven and a half millions, while Germany had reached forty-five millions, and England thirty-five millions. By the year 1896, when the French population barely reached thirty-eight and a half millions, the German had become fifty-two millions, and the English thirty-eight and a half millions, and it was still worse after the census-takings of 1901, when the French people numbered less than thirty-nine millions, against fifty-six millions of Germans and forty-one and a half millions of English.

Unfortunately for France, Germany and England,—the latter, notwithstanding a falling off in the population of Ireland from eight millions to four and a half millions in sixty years,—are not the only countries where the population has increased at such a rapid rate. Not only has Germany quadrupled her population, and England more than tripled hers, in the course of a century, but Italy, Austria-Hungary, Russia, and the United States, without counting the smaller states of northern Europe, are in the same position. A century ago, the population of the Russian Empire was twenty-five millions; according to the census of 1897, it was one hundred and twenty-nine millions. The population of the United States in 1789 was only three millions; in 1903, it had reached seventy-nine millions. In 1901, Italy had nearly thirty-two and a half millions of inhabitants, showing an increase of nearly four millions since 1892; while the population of Austria-Hungary showed an increase of over four millions in ten years.

Many writers proclaim that if France has not quantity, she has, at least, quality, but figures are irrefutable. In England, unproductive soil

no longer exists, and it is fast decreasing in Germany, Austria, Italy, and Russia, whereas in France one-ninth of the soil is still uncultivated. A desert equal in size to ten departments, or to Brittany and Normandy together, or to Holland and Belgium together, remains unproductive, and is thus deprived of twelve millions of people to cultivate it! If the soil were rationally cultivated in the southwest of France alone, the fine climate and the rich soil would enable it to equal England in the production of cereals. But it is just in these departments where the greatest depopulation has been going on for the last seventy-five years, and where, owing to the inertia of the people and their indifference to the disaster which threatens France, a fourth part of the soil remains waste. If this region were only improved and cultivated, it would make an admirable colony for several millions.

The cause of the evil has been sought in the apparent decrease in the number of marriages; but this does not appear to be borne out by facts. Infant mortality is stated to be another cause; but, curiously enough, it is less in urban than in rural districts. But the real cause is not the small decrease in the number of marriages, or the number of illegitimate children, or infant mortality, or alcoholism, or tuberculosis, or the rural exodus, or foreign emigration.

The evil must be diagnosed and called by its proper name; it must be treated for what it is, and the remedies must be applied energetically. Under present conditions, the miseries of the working classes have increased the evil. It is unjust, the writer concludes, that the father of the large family should pay the most taxes, for indirect taxation of the necessities of life presses hardest on the father of a large family. Direct taxation, or relief in various taxes for the fathers of large families, and a tax on the unmarried or the married people who have no families, are among the reforms suggested to remedy the evil.

## SOUTHERN OPINION OF PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT.

UNFRIENDLY expressions regarding President Roosevelt in Southern newspapers have largely given place, since the election, to praise and commendation. Prominent Southern men have written to Northern newspapers in cordial support of the administration. One of the latest evidences of this change of sentiment in the South is afforded by an article contributed to the *South Atlantic Quarterly* (Durham, N. C.) by Prof. Edwin Mims, of Trinity College.

After an appreciative and sympathetic review of Mr. Roosevelt's relation to various public questions, this writer proceeds to analyze his

attitude toward the negro, classing him with those men in the North who are doing constructive work in removing prejudices and in creating a national spirit,—men who hold essentially the same position on the race question as that held by the liberal Southerner.

They know the silent forces that are at work now that will mean vastly significant results for the next generation. Some of them would not hesitate to maintain certain social relations with the very best negroes, but they realize that for the Southern people "*segregation in school, church, and society is in the interest of racial integrity and racial progress.*" They hold that



it was a ruinous policy to bestow the right of suffrage upon all negroes, and they are in sympathy with the recent amendments, but they do not feel that it is right to take the position that no negro under any circumstances should be appointed to office. These Northerners whose words have been quoted by Southern newspapers as expressing the best sentiment on the negro question have indorsed President Roosevelt in his nomination of certain worthy negroes for political office, and have resented the criticism passed upon him for inviting Booker Washington to lunch with him.

In regard to the social recognition of the negro and the appointment of Southern negroes to office, Professor Mims continues :

We shall save ourselves a great deal of excitement if in the future we make up our minds to let Northern men act on that question as it seems best to them, reserving the inalienable right to act as we think best. Nor should we resent President Roosevelt's honest attempt to appoint, instead of an indiscriminate number of negroes, a select few whom he considers worthy. His whole policy of breaking the Republican machines in

the South, of appointing good Southern men to office, and of actually cutting down the number of negro appointees is a distinct advance on the record of any Republican President since the war. He is as much opposed to negro domination as any Southerner. He has simply maintained that he cannot, as President of the whole country, take the position that "the door of hope—the door of opportunity—is to be shut upon any man, no matter how worthy, purely upon the ground of race or color." Is it anything but natural that a man with the training and the personality of Mr. Roosevelt should take this position?

The South has a right to insist, in turn, that he shall not repeat the Indianola incident,—provoking as the circumstances were,—that he shall use the utmost endeavor to understand the delicate situation that confronts the Southern people, that his appointments shall be made, as a rule, from the better class of whites, and only under extraordinary circumstances from "the upper fraction" of the negro population. With this mutual understanding, and better appreciation each of the other's point of view, there is no reason why Mr. Roosevelt's administration should not mean to the South all that he and his friends have prophesied.

## THE FUTURE OF "PUBLIC-HOUSE TRUSTS" IN ENGLAND.

SINCE the opening of the Subway Tavern in New York City, the English movement headed by Lord Grey, and having for its object the control of liquor-selling by a disinterested "trust," has attracted a good deal of attention in this country. Writing in the *National Review* on "Constructive Temperance Reform," the Earl of Lytton sums up the "public-house trust" movement thus :

On the whole, the prospects of the trust companies obtaining a large proportion of new licenses may be considered favorable. Their policy is clearly in accordance with the spirit of section 4 of the new act, and should entitle them to favorable consideration at the hands of the authorities. On the other hand, their prospect of obtaining existing licenses is only slightly improved by the act. No machinery has been established for the extinction of the present system, and, except where their number is excessive and liable to reduction with compensation, existing licenses have been established more firmly than ever.

The only help which the trust receives from the act in respect of acquiring existing licenses is to be found in the words of sub-section 4 of section 3, which allow the compensation fund to be augmented from "other sources" than the charges on licenses. Under this section, it would be possible for a trust company to appear before a licensing bench and ask on public grounds that a license at present granted to the trade should be transferred to themselves on payment by them of the necessary compensation.

On the second reading of the bill in the House of Lords, Lord Grey held that by this means, if the sanction of the licensing judges could be obtained, many houses would be transferred from the trade to the trust, and his opinion was supported by Lord Salisbury and

other members of the government. To carry out this process on any considerable scale would require much larger funds than are at present at the disposal of the trust, and as its surplus profits will in future be allocated to the relief of the rates, it seems hardly possible that any extensive use will be made of this method. At the same time, it may be found extremely useful in certain cases, where, for instance, the possession of the few existing trade houses would give the trust a monopoly in a particular village or town.

It has often been asserted that a trust house can do no good so long as it is in competition with the trade. This is not true, for in almost every case the introduction of a single trust house into a district hitherto served only by tied houses has had the effect of raising the standard in the latter with regard to both the quality of the liquor sold and to the general conduct of the business. It is, however, undeniable that the trust experiment could be carried out with greater thoroughness and effect in a district in which all the houses were under trust management.

In the same review, Col. H. J. Crawford thus sums up the trust experiment :

It must be admitted that the experiment at this stage is an incomplete one; the reason being that it has not yet been possible to apply disinterested management on a large enough scale to be convincing. In the surroundings in which most of the trust houses find themselves, it is impossible fully to test their system of management in its effect on drinking, because when a man is refused drink at a trust house he is able, in nine cases out of ten, to get what he wants by going to the tied house a few hundred yards along the road. In this way, the tied houses everywhere undo most of the good effected by trust management. Nevertheless, good is being done, and we believe any candid person who looks into the reports will admit it.

## CONTROL OF THE PACIFIC RAILROADS.

THE story of the dramatic rise of Mr. Edward H. Harriman from a place of comparative obscurity in the railroad world to the virtual primacy of the transcontinental lines culminated, a few months ago, in the announcement that Mr. Harriman had acquired the largest individual interest in the Atchison, Topeka &

Santa Fé Railway. This action puts Mr. Harriman in full or partial control of all the lines save one between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean, and makes pertinent the article by Mr. C. M. Keys in the February *World's Work*, entitled "A 'Corner' in Pacific Railroads."

Mr. Harriman became known to the public in



1897 as a member of the syndicate which purchased the Government's share in the Union Pacific Railroad. He did not become president of the reorganized Union Pacific until 1904, but from the first his was the directing mind in the plan to make the Union Pacific the center of a great system. To this end, the old Kansas Pacific and the Oregon Short Line were absorbed in the first few months of the new company's existence.

Mr. Keys describes the remarkable increase in Western railroad earnings in the later '90's. The Union Pacific prospered beyond the hopes of the syndicate. By the end of 1900, Mr. Harriman had become a financial power. He set himself to master the detail of his railroads. It is said that he imitated the methods of President Hill, of the Great Northern, in adjusting rates on Western traffic.

Quiet, persistent, aggressive, subtle, he spread his empire into the north, pushing in the outposts of the Burlington, the Northern Pacific, and the Great Northern. Gradually the business of Wyoming, even the business of Montana and of Washington, paid toll more and more to the Harriman lines. Butte and Spokane, important feeders of the Hill roads, welcomed his lines and gave them business. He gathered traffic from all fields, competitive and non-competitive; made mar-

kets where no markets had been before; helped the Great Desert develop; nursed Portland and San Francisco into greater power. He made the Union Pacific; and the Union Pacific made him.

The net result of Mr. Harriman's eight years' campaign is summarized by Mr. Keys in the following table, showing in concise form the mileage of the Pacific roads operated, directly or indirectly, under his influence, and the entire capitalization, stock and bonds, of the companies that own the mileage:

Railroad.	Miles.	Capital.
Union Pacific*.....	6,105	\$487,639,687
Southern Pacific†.....	9,621	596,393,678
San Pedro Route.....	1,100	65,000,000
Atchison, T. & S. F.....	8,004	458,039,780
Northern Pacific.....	5,976	338,689,178
Total.....	30,706	\$1,945,762,323

\* Including the Oregon Short Line and the Oregon Railroad & Navigation Company lines, which give the Union Pacific the Portland route.

† Including the Central Pacific, which furnishes the present overland route from Salt Lake City to San Francisco.

The list does not include any lines east of Omaha either owned or controlled by the Harriman interests. Nor does it note his ownership of more than 50 per cent. of the stock of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company.

## AN ALTERNATIVE OF STATE SOCIALISM.

THE gradual decline of individual opportunity in this country is a favorite theme of the Socialist writer, who seeks to deduce therefrom the futility of the old reliance on the institution of private property. Taking up the Socialist argument at this point, Judge Peter S. Grosscup, of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, undertakes to show, in the February *McClure's*, that the hope of the country lies in the extension of individual participation in the proprietorship of capital and industry. In other words, instead of intrusting the ownership of the agencies of production to the Government itself, he would increase the private citizen's opportunity to become a proprietor. "The paramount problem," says Judge Grosscup, "is not how to crush, or hawk at, or hamper the corporation, merely because it is a corporation, but how to make this new form of property-ownership a workable agent toward repeopleizing the proprietorship of the country's industries."

The first step in the solution of the problem advocated by Judge Grosscup is the assumption by the national government of corporation control and regulation.

The second step, the step for which the first is taken.

is to take care upon what kind of corporate proposal the Government's great seal is set—to cut out the stock-jobbing corporation; the waterlogged corporation; the mere vision of visionaries; the labyrinthian corporation whose stock and bond issues are so purposely tangled that no mind not an expert's can follow their sinuosities. In short, to regenerate the corporation.

The third step is to open to the wage-earner of the country the road to proprietorship. The basis of every successful enterprise is the command: Go forth, increase, and multiply; and to no enterprise can rightfully be denied the fruits of that command. But capital is not the sole thing that enters into enterprise. The skill that puts the ship together, or that subsequently pilots her, is not the sole thing. The men who drive the bolts, and feed the fires, contribute; and to them, as to the capitalist, and to the captains and the lieutenants of industry, should go a part of the increment; not as gratuity, but as their proper allotment out of the combined forces that have made the enterprise successful.

Judge Grosscup directs attention to the fact that while the growth of wealth *per capita* during the twenty years from 1880 to 1900 was about 10 per cent., the amounts invested in bank deposits by people of small means in the same period increased over 500 per cent. A large part of this great savings fund undoubtedly represents money withheld or withdrawn from active business.

## RUSSIA'S "GREATEST, MOST PROGRESSIVE SCHOLAR."

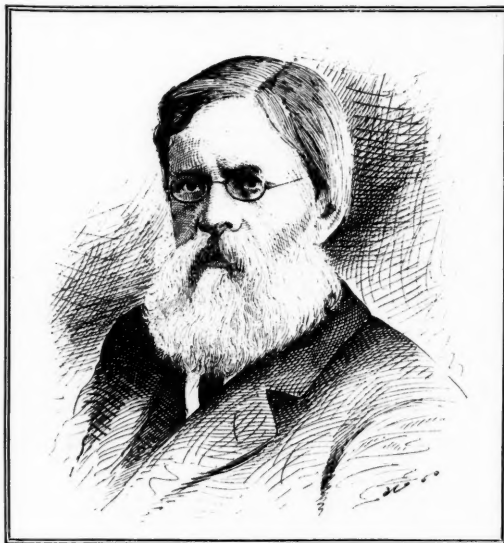
ON December 9, 1904, there died in St. Petersburg one of Russia's foremost scholars and writers, A. N. Pypin, whose name was known beyond the limits of his fatherland. In a literary career extending over a period of fifty years, Pypin has shown a remarkable versatility and thoroughness as an historian of Russian and other Slavonic literatures. He was one of the few great Russian scholars and writers who stood consistently for progressive development of Russian life along the lines of European civilization. Apart from his historical researches and special studies, he devoted much time to the translation into Russian of valuable foreign works, and to the writing and editing of journalistic articles.

Born at Taratov, in 1833, Pypin obtained his academic education at the University of St. Petersburg, where he was appointed to a professorship in 1860. Two years later he found himself obliged to tender his resignation, on account of the student disturbances which had occurred at that time. Pypin then turned to the literary field, and became a contributor to the *Sovremennik* (Contemporary). With the suspension of the latter, in 1866, he joined the circle of able collaborators on the *Vyestnik Yevropy* (European Messenger). From that time until the end of his life, Pypin had one or more articles in almost every number of the *Vyestnik*.

In 1859, he published his first work, a comparative study of Russian, Byzantine, and Roman folk-lore, the comparative texts of the two last named appearing in 1862. Following this there appeared his "History of Slavonic Literatures," which was published in St. Petersburg in 1865. The portion of this work dealing with Polish literature was written by W. Spasowicz. This fine work was very favorably received by foreign scholars, and was translated into German, French, and Bohemian. Subsequent to this, Pypin published "The Intellectual Movements in Russia in the First Half of the Nineteenth Century," the first volume of which, treating of Russian society under Alexander I., has been translated into German.

Mention should also be made here of his valuable four-volume work, "The History of Russian Ethnography" (1892-94), as well as of his "History of Russian Literature," also in four volumes (1898-99). Pypin points out in his memoirs that he owed all his intellectual development to his cousin, the famous critic, M. G. Chernyshevski, who for nineteen years (1864-83) was an exile in Siberia. Thanks to Chernyshevski, Pypin became intimate with the mem-

bers of the circle that collaborated on the *Sovremennik*. The policy of this publication was still guided by the literary traditions of the renowned critic, Byelinski, a masterly biography of whom Pypin published, in two volumes, in 1876. This circle of *littérateurs* included such talented men as Turgenev, Gondranov, Leo



THE LATE A. N. PYPIN, RUSSIAN SCHOLAR, HISTORIAN, AUTHOR.

Tolstoi, and Nekrasov. A biography of the latter was published by Pypin shortly before his death.

Notwithstanding his advanced age, says the *Russkiya Vyedomosti*, "Pypin was distinguished for his prodigious industry. He was even more distinguished for his warm interest in science, and his intense conviction." "The mainspring of his endeavors was his desire to promote progress and enlightenment." "For all his attempts to popularize historical knowledge, he was yet careful to maintain in his writings a high standard of scholarship." Professor Jagic, who wrote a warm eulogy on Pypin's life and works, says:

I know of no other man who could have grasped as Pypin did the main features of Russian intellectual life, who could have given it a critical illumination, and directed the life thus illumined in harmony with the needs of mental progress. In all his researches and studies on literary history he retained a clear conception of the bond between literature and the needs of national life. He emphasized the significance of that literature which reflects the real interests and aspirations of the Russian people.



As the *Novoye Vremya* points out, Pypin began his career under the thunder of the Crimean War and ended it under the thunder of the present conflict in the far East. Since 1897, Pypin was a member of the Academy of Sci-

ences of St. Petersburg. He was elected a member of that institution as early as 1871, but his election was not sanctioned by the government, because of his liberal views. He published, for the academy, the works of Catherine II.

## A BUDDHIST PRIEST ON THE WAR.

THE Rt. Rev. Shaku Soyen, Lord Abbot of Egakuji, Kamakura, one of the most prominent Buddhist prelates of Japan, the Buddhist delegate to the Parliament of Religions at Chicago, in 1893, has been with the Japanese army in the field. He was present at the battle of Nanshan Hill, and has just published his impressions of that memorable struggle. His opinion on war is interesting, as that of a representative of the Zen sect, one of the strictest and most orthodox of Japan. The *Open Court* (Chicago) publishes a translation of his opinion, from which we quote the following:

War is an evil, and a great one, indeed. But war against evils must be unflinchingly prosecuted till we

taking. But the firm conviction of the justice of her cause has endowed her with an indomitable courage, and she is determined to carry the struggle to the bitter end. Here is the price we must pay for our ideals—a price paid in streams of blood and by the sacrifice of many thousands of living bodies. However determined may be our resolution to crush evils, our hearts tremble at the sight of this appalling scene.

"How much dearer is the price still going to be?" he asks.

What enormous losses are we going to suffer through the evil thoughts of our enemy, not to speak of the many injuries which our poor enemy himself will have to endure! All these miserable soldiers, individually harmless and innocent of the present war, are doomed to a death not only unnatural, but even inhuman! Indeed, were it not for the doctrine of love taught by the Buddha, which should elevate every individual creature to the realm of a pure spirituality, we would, in the face of the terrible calamities that now befall us, be left to utter destruction and without any consolation whatever. Were it not for the belief that the bloom of truly spiritual light will, out of these mutilated, disfigured, and decomposing corpses, return with renewed splendor, we would not be able to stand these heartrending tribulations even for a moment. Were it not for the consolation that these sacrifices are not brought for an egotistic purpose, but are an inevitable step toward the final realization of enlightenment, how could I, poor mortal, bear these experiences of a hell let loose on earth? The body is but a vessel for something greater than itself. Individuality is but a husk containing something more permanent. Let us, then, though not without losing tenderness of heart, bravely confront our ordeal.

As to his purpose in going through the campaign at the front, the Rt. Rev. Shaku Soyen says:

I came here with a double purpose. I wished to have my faith tested by going through the greatest horrors of my life, but I also wished to inspire, if I could, our valiant soldiers with the ennobling thoughts of the Buddha, so as to enable them to die on the battlefield with the confidence that the task in which they are engaged is great and noble. I wished to convince them of the truths that this war is not a mere slaughter of their fellow-beings, but that they are combating an evil, and that at the same time, corporeal annihilation rarely means a rebirth of soul, not in heaven, indeed, but here among ourselves. I believe I did my best to impress these ideas upon the soldiers' hearts.

As to the actual fighting, the prelate says: "It beggars description! Verily, it is the acme of brutality and recklessness conceived in this world."



THE RT. REV. SHAKU SOYEN, A LEADER OF JAPANESE BUDDHIST THOUGHT.

(Who has been with the Japanese army before Port Arthur.)

attain the final aim. In the present hostilities in which Japan has entered with great reluctance, she pursues no egotistic purpose, but seeks the subjugation of evils hostile to civilization, peace, and enlightenment. She deliberated long before she took up arms, as she was well aware of the magnitude and gravity of the under-

## THE CHANGE IN GERMAN MILITARY TACTICS.

ONE of the high-rank officers of the Norwegian army who attended the annual maneuvers of the German army last autumn contributes to the illustrated review, *Kringsjaa* (Christiania), an article describing and analyzing German war tactics. War tactics in general, he begins by saying, are no abstract thing; they rest upon the character of the people and the territory occupied by that people. The present German war tactics were created in Lorraine during the first battles of 1870, and "are written in the blood of twenty-five thousand men." Following on a detailed description of the maneuvers of 1904, this officer says, by way of comment: "The Germans have won all their battles by their artillery. The A, B, C of German military science has been, Attack; and the strategy of the German army can be summed up in the one word, Drill. "Keep your troops in hand, and make good use of your cartridges,— the rest does not matter."

The German tactics, developed during the Franco-Prussian War, continues this writer, prevailed in Europe for thirty years. They were also adopted by the Americans, the Japanese, and the Turks.

Then came the Boer war, and the English tried these tactics upon a people who lived by the chase. The British placed their artillery well, and fired long and with accuracy. Then they sent their infantry forward in large masses; and yet at from seven hundred to eight hundred yards everything stopped. They did not dare to go forward, and they could not retreat. It developed that the Boers were using another method. They lined up in groups, and came slowly upon their enemy, steadily firing all the while. This method seriously crippled the English infantry, and large numbers of them were taken prisoners. Here was something new,—no sudden blow, no terrific artillery fire. As a result, the English now discard their old ideas, and

have actually taken up new tactics. In the latter part of the war they mastered the new idea. Immediately the Americans followed.

In Germany, continues this writer, the new idea also made a great impression. Germany must stand in the front rank of military nations; so she must change her tactics to suit the times. The frontal attack must be abolished as soon as possible, and the Body Guard in Berlin began by practising the Boer attack more zealously than they did their own. Some nations, however, hesitated to adopt this new method. In Norway, it had advocates and opponents. The Swedes were more radical, and introduced new regulations. The Danes and other nations hesitated. Then came the Russo-Japanese war.

The Japanese fought in the German way, and to Europe soon came reports that their artillery fire was annihilating the Russians; moreover, the Japanese made the most beautiful German "normal attack," with drums and music. They stormed and took the heights. With amazement, the rest of the world heard that the first tactical principle of the Japanese was, "Happy the man who dies with his fame surviving him." Yet the Japanese did not seem to suffer the heavy losses expected. In Germany, the observers said: "What foolishness these Englishmen have taught us! It was all simply because they could not use our attack. Their soldiers were not schooled like ours; their soldiers were actually cowardly. They had very small losses compared with the number of prisoners. See how well the Japanese are doing it. The Germans have taught them everything." The Germans were convinced that the Boer attack does not suit the national popular temper.

In conclusion, this writer emphasizes and commends the German idea of drill. Constant drilling and discipline mean more to the Fatherland, he says, than the rest of the world has realized.

## ENGLAND'S PROBLEM OF THE UNEMPLOYED.

THAT the problem of the unemployed is recognized as a pressing one in England is made evident in the pages of the London reviews. The *Nineteenth Century* for January contains a remarkable suggestion for the solution of the problem from the pen of Mr. Keir Hardie, M.P.

## THE COMPULSORY PROVISION OF WORK.

"A Hint from the Past" is Mr. Hardie's subtitle. More than one old act of Parliament, he shows, is still in force which make local authorities responsible, under penalty of a fine, for the

finding of employment for all genuine unemployed within the limits of their jurisdiction. An act of 1601 compels "the church-wardens of every parish and four, three, or two substantial householders" to meet regularly for the purpose of "setting to work all such persons, married or unmarried, having no means to maintain them, and use no ordinary and daily trade of life to get their living by; and also to raise weekly or otherwise (by taxation of every inhabitant, parson, vicar, and other, and of every occupier of lands, houses, tithes impropriate, appropriations of

tithes, coal mines, or saleable underwoods in the said parish, in such competent sum and sums of money as they shall think fit) a convenient stock of flax, hemp, wool, thread, iron, and other ware and stuff to set the poor on work."

An act of 1819 orders churchwardens and overseers of the poor of such parish, . . . to purchase or to hire and take on lease, for and on account of the parish, any suitable portion or portions of land within or near to such parish, not exceeding twenty acres in the whole, and to employ and set to work in the cultivation of such land, on account of the parish, any such persons as by law they are directed to set to work, and to pay to such of the poor persons so employed as shall not be supported by the parish reasonable wages for their work; and the poor persons so employed shall have such and the like remedies for the recovery of their wages, and shall be subject to such and the like punishment for misbehavior in their employment, as other laborers in husbandry are by law entitled and subject to.

In 1831, the twenty-acre limit was increased to fifty acres. All authorities agree that these acts are still in force.

#### "COUNCILS OF LABOR" NEEDED.

Mr. Hardie argues, therefore, that the law of England recognizes the obligation of each district to provide employment for all its out-of-works, this obligation being quite distinct from that which compels them to support paupers. But he asks for the creation of new authorities to carry out the work, and suggests specially elected "councils of labor."

#### AFFORESTATION PROFITABLE.

What work would these councils provide? Afforestation Mr. Hardie thinks the most profitable. The German forests maintain a population of 400,000, and yield the national exchequer no less than \$90,000,000 annually.

Our new councils of industry, then, would be empowered to acquire land, compulsorily when necessary, and at its fair market price, to be used for any purpose necessary for setting the poor to work. Existing administrative authorities already have certain powers to acquire land for allotments, small holdings, cottages, which they may also build, and also powers to give technical instruction.

#### A "Labor Reservoir."

Mr. C. F. G. Masterman has an important and suggestive article in the *Independent Review* upon this subject. It is more hopeful than most of those which deal with this pressing topic. He maintains that the perpetual recurrence of periods of unemployment is a problem which is not hopeless, but can be remedied if the civilization of the country is taken in hand as a matter demanding the attention of the government and the energy of the citizen. He recognizes that

for many decades to come a competitive system will advance in rhythmical expansions and contractions. At intervals of some nine years, men will be thrown out of work whose services society will need when trade improves. He advocates, therefore, the construction of some kind of labor reservoir for the preservation in times of scarcity of the labor value of those normally engaged in remunerative work.

#### MINISTER OF LABOR NEEDED—

After describing what has been done in the past, and explaining the experiment that is to be tried this winter, he points out that there is great danger arising from the heterogeneous nature of the local central committees and the absence of any strong controlling executive committee. Never was more manifest the need of a minister and department of labor, whose creation should be the first work of the government having at heart the welfare of the common people. He thinks there must be a national attempt to cure a national disease, and he would link on the problem of unemployment with the even more insistent problem of repatriation.

#### —AND LABOR COLONIES.

The method he would follow would be that adopted by the Dutch labor colonies, especially in Frederiksoord. The initial expense of founding such colonies would be a rate combined with the treasury grant. Land would be purchased suitable for small holdings at a reasonable price. On this land the colonists would be placed, who would break it up, make roads, sink wells, build homesteads, etc., with the object of supplying a variety of work for skilled and unskilled labor. It would be expanded in times of scarcity, and reduced to a minimum in times when trade was promising. This work, Mr. Masterman thinks, might ultimately become almost self-supporting. It would be negotiated in one session of Parliament, begun on a small scale or a large, and would represent a deliberate step forward toward the creation of a civilization in England.

The second part of his paper deals with what he describes as the draining of the abyss, or the abolition of the more degrading and degraded forms of poverty. He maintains that if the new energy of reform will but advance fearlessly through the hazardous days we shall reach a time when to-day's accumulation of ugliness and pain will appear but some fantastic and disordered dream.

The English poor law has been found wanting and should be reorganized on the lines of German and Belgian experience in respect to labor colonies.

## "MUNICIPAL TRADING" A DEAD LOSS.

THE vexed question of municipal ownership, —municipal trading, as they call it in England,—continues to be vigorously discussed in the English magazines and reviews. Gruesome reading for the British taxpayer is provided by Mr. John Holt Schooling in his *Windsor* article on "Local Rates and Taxes." The paper is rather difficult to read, owing to the way in which tables of formidable statistics are interspersed amid the author's own remarks. Certain totals may be reproduced. The total municipal expenditure for the year 1900-01 is over £110,000,000 sterling (\$550,000,000). Seventeen millions were spent on loans repaid and interest on loans. The percentage of expenditure paid out of the loans to total expenditure has risen from 18 per cent. in 1884-85 to 24 per cent. in 1899-1900. The outstanding debt of local spending authorities has risen in twenty-five years, 1874-1900, from £92,000,000 (\$460,000,000) to £293,000,000 (\$1,465,000,000); or from £389 (\$1,945) per hundred of population to £917 (\$4,585); or from £80 (\$400) per £100 (\$500) of the ratable value of property to £167 (\$835). The local debt is now nearly half the national debt.

### "REPRODUCTIVE UNDERTAKINGS."

Two hundred and ninety-nine corporations out of 317 are responsible for reproductive undertakings. The total capital invested was £121,000,000 (\$605,000,000), of which £117,000,000 (\$585,000,000) were borrowed; and only £16,000,000 (\$80,000,000) had been paid off in 1902.

The excess of yearly income over yearly working expenses was 4.8 millions. Of this "balance," 4.2 millions were paid away in respect of borrowed capital, and 0.2 of a million was set apart for depreciation. This leaves a net profit of 0.4 of a million, or, more exactly, of £378,000 per annum upon a capital of £121,200,000.

Descending to detail, baths and washhouses are worked at a loss of £6 5s. 9d. per £100 of capital. The gas works showed the highest profit,—namely, £1 12s. 10d. per cent. Tramways owned and worked by corporations yielded a yearly profit of 19 shillings per cent., while those owned by corporations but not worked by corporations yielded a yearly profit of £1 10s. 6d. per cent., a fact which Mr. Schooling thinks points to other people understanding business better than the local spending authorities. All the reproductive undertakings were worked at a yearly alleged profit of 6s. 3d. per £100 of capital invested in them.

It is in the smallness of the amount written off for depreciation that Mr. Schooling finds the Achilles' heel of municipal trading. He exclaims

upon the fact that "3s. 2½d. is the amount of depreciation annually put aside per £100 of capital, in respect of plant, machinery, etc., which cost £121,170,000." Mr. Schooling considers that a yearly allowance for depreciation of 5 per cent. on the capital invested is a most moderate estimate. Rectifying municipal accounts by this standard, Mr. Schooling arrives at the following totals:

Capital invested, £121,170,000; 5 per cent. on this for yearly depreciation is £6,058,500; yearly allowance for depreciation by corporation is £193,374; extra for depreciation which should be set aside yearly is £5,865,226; deduct net profit stated by corporation, which now vanishes, £378,281, making the net loss yearly upon the 1,029 "reproductive undertakings" £5,486,945.

So that, instead of a nominal profit of £378,281 (\$1,891,405), we have a net yearly loss of £4 10s. 7d. per cent. per annum on these 1,029 reproductive undertakings in England and Wales, excluding London. Mr. Schooling combats the notion that the sinking-fund principle will provide for depreciation. He says that it provides for the paying off of the particular liability to which it relates, but that it does not provide for the loss by depreciation of plants. Asked what is the remedy, Mr. Schooling frankly replies, "I do not know."

### England's Local Indebtedness.

In the *Contemporary Review*, Sir Robert Giffen sounds a note of warning against the vast increase of local expenditure which has taken place during the last forty years, and must now, he thinks, be stayed. Imperial expenditure has increased from £70,000,000 (\$350,000,000) to £140,000,000 (\$700,000,000), and this, Sir Robert thinks, is not unduly great. But the local expenditure, which in the sixties was only £36,000,000 (\$180,000,000) for the whole United Kingdom, had grown in 1901-02 to £144,000,000 (\$720,000,000). In the same year, the total of local indebtedness had risen to £407,000,000 (\$2,035,000,000), equal to half the national debt. Sir Robert admits that local expenditure is to a great extent an index of civilization, and not, as is often national expenditure, an index of waste; but he thinks that the time has come to put a stop to wholesale borrowings.

Taking the question as a whole, England's expenditure, imperial and local, has increased as follows:

	Forty Years Ago.	Present Time.
Imperial .....	£70,000,000	£140,000,000
Local .....	36,000,000	144,000,000
Total .....	£106,000,000	£284,000,000



If, however, the figures of local revenue only be taken, which Sir Robert Giffen regards as a safer guide for the present purpose, it appears that there has been an aggregate growth of £145,000,000, or £45,000,000 more than double the amount of forty years ago. Sir Robert Giffen assumes, therefore, that the English people are spending at the present time on imperial and local objects together about £45,000,000 more than they should be spending if they were keeping

the exact proportion to their resources of the expenditure of forty years ago.

Sir Robert Giffen points out two special evils in the British system of taxation,—(1) the excessive strain upon the real property which is the main source of the income of local authorities, and is also part of the source from which the imperial income tax is derived, and (2) the collection of revenue by imperial authorities on account of local authorities.

## LONDON, OLD AND NEW.

SUCH is the title of a strong, fresh article by Mr. John Burns, in the *Pall Mall Magazine* for January, dealing with the changes constantly taking place, chiefly in the name of improvements, in the metropolis. Speaking of the Strand district, Mr. Burns says:

Time and the unfolding of its work will prove that the County Council has tried to give artistic expression and architectural harmony to a district which, through past neglect, personal greed, civic niggardliness, and state indifference, had become an area of squalid tenements, fetid slums, boozy taverns, shabby playhouses, and vulgar shops in slatternly streets.

The Strand has alternately possessed the prison of kings, the palaces of dukes, the promenade for poets, the rendezvous of wits, players, rebels, and beauties. Here the great, the glorious, and the good have lodged, strolled, or played their part, had their entrances and their exits, fascinated, instructed, and amused the generations that began by adoring their favorites and ended by starving or beheading them.

### "MY YOUTHFUL DREAM."

Opposite the Gaiety, near by where Nell Gwynne in olden days bewitched the ancient Cavaliers, close by where Nellie Farren charmed the modern gallants, grim Puritan Cromwell's body lay in somber state at Somerset House. Close by, Inigo Jones died, the illustrious Froissart, the gentle Chaucer, the wise Wycliffe, wrote their chronicles, corrected their sermons, or penned their missals and obeyed the muse.

It was my youthful dream as a London apprentice, and later as one of its ædiles, to try to revert to the ideal Strand, and from Northumberland Avenue to Somerset House have a one-hundred-and-fifty-foot Strand, with nothing between the north side and the Embankment; terrace gardens in three tiers dropping to the river, with Somerset House and Waterloo Bridge on the eastern side, and on its west the eastern side of Northumberland Avenue. But it was only a dream, that fifty years ago could have been realized for no greater cost than is now being expended on the Holborn-to-Strand improvement.

### THE STRAND IMPROVEMENTS.

Speaking of the modern Strand improvements, Mr. Burns regrets the disappearance of Clifford's Inn, though for that the County Council have

no responsibility; the new Savoy, he thinks, would have been handsomer if built entirely of natural stone, and the same may be said of the Cecil. But, he regretfully says, "over these buildings the London County Council have no power or control whatever."

Taking the whole scheme of the Strand improvement, it is going to be artistically as good a scheme as physically it will be a benefit to vehicular and pedestrian traffic and subterranean tramway traction.

But there is a danger ahead,—serious, ugly, deforming, monstrous. It has been suggested, fortunately by journals that have little influence and less soul, that an elevated railway should be erected in the center of Kingsway or over the two pavements on either side—some vagrant, sprawling, iron Behemoth, dragging in red-oxide color its tawdry and ugly length along.

But London will never tolerate this, the most recent but least decent of transatlantic innovations.

### HOW BEST TO BEAUTIFY LONDON.

The architectural beauty and harmony of London, he remarks, depend at present almost entirely on individual taste, the vagaries of ground landlords, and the capacity of architects, and of these three Mr. Burns thinks the architects deserve least blame. And one of the greatest safeguards for the beautifying of London would be, he thinks, more power to the County Council's elbow.

The council, for historical, artistic, and educational reasons, should be vested with power, not only to determine line and height, but to select or suggest material for its buildings, and above all to deal with contumacious Philistines who, disregarding what time, spirit, and tradition have evolved, should violate the artistic *milieu* and outrage neighborly amenities.

No one is likely to dispute his statement that "what London badly needs is more power to put down or regulate street advertisements." Add to this unrestricted power to the County Council to improve and substitute electrical for horse traction and Mr. Burns would be satisfied—for the time.

## IS GERMANY ENGLAND'S ENEMY?

EVIDENCES are not wanting of a widespread and deep-laid anti-German propaganda in the British press. A writer who signs himself "Julius" has been contributing a series of articles of this sort to the *Contemporary Review*. In the issue for January, he declares that he is very anxious to be on the best of terms with the Fatherland. All the blame for the present lack of cordiality in Anglo-German relations he puts on the head of the Berlin government. Germany, he persists, is bent on making mischief between Great Britain and other powers. "Bismarck might have said, 'The empire is calumny.'" The Germans, says "Julius," are still carrying out a campaign of calumny against Englishmen.

One of the symptoms by which we must judge the German Government's sentiments toward us is the attitude it assumes on the various contentious questions involving England and some other country which arise from time to time,—between England and Russia, between England and the Boers, between England and Turkey, between England and Italy, between England and France. And we know as an absolute fact that in the case of every one of these misunderstandings Germany has invariably taken the side of our adversary. German editors and newspaper men, of course, are swayed by feelings common to all humanity. Hence, some of them took the side of England at the beginning of the North Sea incident, but shortly afterward even they veered round and supported Russia. In view of those and many other irrefragable facts, am I or am I not right in drawing the conclusion that the policy of the German Government, as it stands revealed at pres-

ent, is directed to the advantage of the retrograde Eastern powers, nay, to the most retrograde part of them, and to the disadvantage of the liberal Western powers?

This is coupled with a policy of subserviency to Russia, of which "Julius" gives the following instance:

The Kaiser's government passed with difficulty a bill in the Reichstag the result of which was to raise the price of the necessities of life. It was violently opposed by the Socialists and the Liberal friends of the people, but the chancellor was adroit, persevering, and victorious. The minimum tariff became law. The next step was to conclude treaties of commerce with foreign states upon the basis of that minimal tariff. Much,—everything, in fact,—depended upon the assent of Russia. But M. Witte absolutely refused it. Consequently, the German chancellor was at his wits' end. For if he failed to talk over the Czarism, the whole fabric so carefully constructed fell to the ground, and he would fall with it; and of Russia's consent there seemed no reasonable hope. A commercial war would be less harmful than the minimum tariff, M. Witte's press organ said. Yet all at once Russia gave her consent, and M. Witte himself went humbly to Germany to announce it. Thus again the chancellor triumphed, and the party of dear food and strong government triumphed with him. How? This time he won through the direct intervention of a foreign sovereign acting against the advice of his principal adviser, and in defiance of the interests of his suffering people. What did that foreign sovereign receive as a *quid pro quo*? Almost at the same time a trial took place at Königsberg. I think I need not recall the circumstances of that trial. The whole civilized world remembers them. They will form a special chapter in the history of human culture.

## AN ITALIAN VIEW OF OUR POLICY OF "STRENUOSITY."

AN anonymous writer, reviewing world-politics under the title "Elements of Peace and War," in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), devotes some interesting paragraphs to the United States. He says that President Roosevelt's majority in the recent election would give him the right to consider himself a dictator if the Constitution did not already give him personal power greater than that granted to any constitutional sovereign of Europe.

It has demonstrated more than ever how really Theodore Roosevelt is the exponent of present-day North American spirit. All his moral and physical figure, all his ideal programme, all his effective policy, can be resumed in the title of his volume "The Strenuous Life," which may be considered the evangel of a union as different from that of Washington as the embryo of the great state founded and saved by Washington was different from the virgin land discovered and conquered by Columbus. What is the Monroe Doctrine, that al-

ready seemed excessive to old Europe, compared with this new evangel? To-day, it is no longer a question of "America for the Americans;" the question is whether the whole civilized world must become in the end tributary to North America as to politics no less than as to international economics.

After commenting on the policies for which President Roosevelt stands, this writer continues, referring to surprises that the President's own supporters may receive:

Roosevelt,—eminent, practical statesman though he be,—is, however, a man who understands the great importance of the ideal in the life of a people as in the life of an individual. He feels that the ideal of greatness proposed by him to his country would have no solid base if public honesty and public virtue did not contribute to constitute and sustain it. Sufficient to show this is his campaign in favor of the negroes, at the risk of losing all public favor, both the great parties being in all their elements hostile to the colored race, even to injustice, and to cruelty.

## THE AMERICAN WOMAN FROM A SWEDISH POINT OF VIEW.

RESTLESSNESS and a hollow, artificial society, for which, the American woman is mainly responsible,—these are the characteristics of our civilization which impressed a well-known Swedish authoress on a recent visit to this country. The magazine *Varia* (Stockholm), which withholds her name but announces her eminence, gives her impressions in full. Besides remaining for several years in this country, says the editor of *Varia*, the writer has been a student of American conditions, particularly in the eastern part of the United States, for more than ten years. American society is a hollow, worthless thing, she believes. When the poor artist, coming from Paris or London, “freezes in his soul, he feels powerless in view of the lack of place into which to put his social energies. He is forced to choose between family and society life or a Bohemian existence which does not at all correspond to the companionship he enjoyed in Europe.” The most fortunate people in America, this writer believes, are the middle-aged men who have means for expensive club life. She is, however, unsparing in her criticism of the clubs for women. “The so-called lady-clubs are simply societies, with or without clubhouses, for discussion, agitation, and lecturing. A great deal of work is done ostensibly for the sake of woman, yet the whole thing makes a forced impression. On the other hand, however, there are many fine reading circles and afternoon courses of study.”

It is hard to find a real American woman in New York, this Swedish writer declares. She continues, unsparingly:

The women of the middle class, which is the largest in New York, are characterized by their laziness, incompetence, and vanity. They may know how to make a dress elegant, but poorly suited to their means; and yet, only very seldom do they know how to cook. Most of the dyspepsia and nervousness of their husbands is surely caused by the half-cooked meals of the women. Besides, not being practical, they waste half the food they consume. Yet they trim their nails for hours, and live half the time on the street,—that is, when they are not fortunate enough to be jammed around the bargain counter. This is not merely a European view of the matter,—it is a frequent topic of admonition on the part of many American economic writers. While these offer many explanations, they all agree that there is an incalculable danger to the country in the increasing laziness of the middle-class woman and her unfitness to be the head of a household.

Much is being done in the United States, this

lady admits, in the way of popular education and enlightenment, but most of it, she contends, is “along improper lines, and complicated by the red tape of superficial educational methods, causing a confusion which is worse than the most rigid conservatism.” American teachers, she declares, are a worthy class, but are generally “oppressed by pedagogical studies which they are unable to digest, confused by theories which they are not able to convert into practice. Alas for the American fetish worship of theories and long words!”

A class of women which especially pleased this Swedish writer was the shop girls. Many of these, she declares, by their own “gifts and cleverness, stand apart from the great mass of the people,—unsuccessful artists, half-educated teachers, pretentious girls, foolishly known as salesladies and stenographers.” When an American woman is practically inclined, however, “she is the most practical woman on earth.” This foreign observer was also very much interested in the “richly developed girl-bachelor’s life, with really genuine American systems of making a living.” As to the wives of millionaires, especially in New York, they have “no time for anything but sham society; no time even for serious reading sufficient to properly discharge the duties of membership on the women’s club committees.” The charitable work of American women comes in for much praise from this writer. Particularly sympathetic were the impressions made on her by college-settlement work. She also praises the Consumers’ League and its accomplishments.

That Americans have degenerated, especially in the East, is the final verdict. In Scandinavia, and in certain circles of English life, there is much more social dignity than in the United States, she avers. The “Four Hundred” of New York, and those who seek to imitate them, “as a rule are animated by hypocrisy or a fear of losing caste.” As to American libraries, says this writer, in conclusion, there are many of them, but they exist chiefly for the librarian or the vanity of the ones who donate them. There is only one complete library in the United States—the Boston Public Library—she declares (forgetting the existence of the Library of Congress). The others are really “gigantic cities of shelves whose chief function is to boast that they have more books than the others.”



## BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

### SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE AMERICAN MONTHLIES AND QUARTERLIES.

**American Politics.**—Mr. Edward Stanwood, writing in the *Atlantic Monthly* for February on "The Democratic Predicament," takes the ground that the logical consequence of the existing situation is that those members of the Democratic party who form the "Bryan wing," so called, should take permanent control of the organization, and should compel the withdrawal from the party of those "who call themselves Democrats, and who have no sympathy with their forward policy." These independent Democrats, it is predicted, would not become Republicans, but their situation would be akin to that of the supporters of Bell and Everett in the canvass of 1860. Most of them would probably be, and remain to the end, Independents and Mugwumps.—"Rhode Island: A State for Sale," is the title of Mr. Lincoln Steffens' arraignment of the Republican State machine in *McClure's* for February.—In *Success* for February, Mr. David Graham Phillips continues his "Confessions of a Politician."—"The Strong Man of Canada," Sir Wilfrid Laurier, is the subject of a character sketch by William Carman Roberts in the February number of *Munsey's*.—Canada's attitude toward us is set forth in the *World's Work* for February by W. S. Harwood, who has collected the opinions of three hundred representative Canadians, no one of which reveals any sentiment in favor of a political union. The laws, morals, and institutions of the people of the United States are sharply criticised by these Canadians, who are enthusiastic over the future of Canada.

**National Financial Problems.**—Several articles on present-day financial conditions appear in the February number of the *World's Work*. Mr. Charles M. Harvey describes "Our Growth in Wealth," indicating the immense expansion in the value of the country's property in the past half-century. Mr. S. A. Nelson contributes an article on "Wall Street as It Is," showing how the United States has become a nation of investors. "How Insurance Laws Work" is the subject of an important paper by Mr. Henry W. Lanier. This is the fifth of Mr. Lanier's papers on life insurance, and makes clear the need of federal control as a substitute for the present inconsistent and chaotic system of State regulations. Mr. Lanier shows that the enactments of no two States are alike on the subject of life insurance; that there have been cases in which decisions of the State and federal courts were exactly opposite; and that heavy taxation and inequitable laws formed the chief obstacles to the spreading of the benefits of life insurance. A promoter's account, from his own experience, of operations in his peculiar field forms one of the most interesting articles of the number.—Mr. Thomas W. Lawson's articles on "Frenzied Finance" in *Everybody's Magazine* continue to attract no small share of public attention.

**American Industries.**—In the *Cosmopolitan's* series on "Great Industries of the United States," the manufacture of boots and shoes is described in an illustrated article contributed to the February number by William R. Stewart.—The American automobile industry is the subject of an article contributed to *Leslie's Monthly* for February by Arthur N. Jervis.—In the same magazine, an engine designed by William Hoffman, of Buffalo, N. Y., to double the speed of railroad trains is described by Wallace Armstrong.—The ramifications of the beef trust form the theme of an article contributed to *Everybody's Magazine* for February by Charles Edward Russell.—In *Success* for February, the life-story of Robert Hoe, the famous inventor and manufacturer of printing presses, is related by Earl Mayo.—"The Advance of 'Wireless'" is the subject of an article by Eugene P. Lyle, Jr., in the *World's Work* for February. In this paper, Mr. Lyle brings up to date the story of the latest improvements in the development of wireless telegraphy.—Canada's second transcontinental railroad is described in *Success* by Lawrence J. Burpee.—"The Development of Nome" is the subject of an article in the February *Cosmopolitan* by Alfred H. Dunham.

**Economics and Political Science.**—Perhaps the general public is not yet fully aware that the scientific journals issued from the departments of economics and political science in several of our universities have discussions of live topics of the day, which are frequently quite as interesting as similar discussions in the more popular periodicals, and as a general rule more authoritative. As an instance of this, the article in the *Journal of Political Economy*, of the University of Chicago, for the current quarter, on "Conditions in the Cattle Industry," by William Hill, contains perhaps the clearest statement yet made anywhere relative to the facts revealed by recent investigations into the operations of the beef trust.—The same journal contains an illuminating article on foreign markets by Dr. Carl C. Plehn.—There is also a timely article on "The Present Financial and Monetary Condition of Japan," by F. Schroeder.—The subject of insurance is very fully discussed in the last number of the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science (Philadelphia). There are papers on insurance investments; fire insurance expenses, profits, and problems; the true basis of fire insurance, and life insurance by fraternal orders.—American commercial organization is another topic discussed in this journal, while by way of comparison the British system of improving and administering ports and terminal facilities is described by J. Russell Smith, and an article on the relation of the government in Germany to the promotion of commerce is contributed by Solomon Huebner.—A great deal of material which has an important bearing on legislation and legislative procedure appears



in the successive issues of the *Political Science Quarterly*, of Columbia University. In the current issue there is a valuable paper on present problems of constitutional law, by Prof. J. W. Burgess.—Dr. H. R. Seager reviews the recent decisions of the courts on restrictive labor laws, and a paper on municipal corruption is contributed by Mr. Henry Jones Ford.—Dr. Georg Jellinek, of the University of Heidelberg, writes on parliamentary obstruction.—The University of Chicago convocation address by Miss Jane Addams, of Hull House, on "Immigration: A Field Neglected by the Scholar," is printed in full in the January number of the *Commons*, the little magazine edited by Dr. Graham Taylor, of Chicago.—Another interesting paper in this month's *Commons* is that contributed by Paul U. Kellogg under the title "How Denver Stands by Judge Lindsey." This article describes the remarkable success of the Juvenile Court, of Denver, to which Judge Lindsey's personality has so powerfully contributed.—The January number of *Social Service* (New York) is almost wholly devoted to various proposed solutions of the drink problem, particularly the public-house trust movement in England, the Subway Tavern in New York, the South Carolina dispensary system, and the work of the Anti-Saloon League in many States.—In the *International Quarterly* for January there is a paper on "The Housing of City Masses," by Dr. E. R. L. Gould, and a defense of the famous Subway Tavern in New York, by Mr. Joseph Johnson, Jr.—In the *Arena* for January, J. Henniker Heaton, M. P., writes on "The Postal Savings-Banks of Great Britain; or, How the Government of England Fosters Saving Among the Poor."

**Discussions of Social Questions.**—The wonderful progress of socialism in Europe is well described by Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip in the February number of *Scribner's*. Mr. Vanderlip shows that even the most conservative of European governments have been forced to recognize, though reluctantly, the strength of the Socialist movement. Germany, for example, has accepted old-age pensions, which is nothing more or less than a part of the Socialist programme.—In his second paper on lynching, in *McClure's Magazine* for February, Mr. Ray Stannard Baker deals with the manifestations of the lynching spirit in the Northern States, especially in Ohio and Illinois. He cites two recent cases of lynchings, one in Springfield, Ohio, and the other in Danville, Ill., which illustrate diametrically opposite conceptions of public duty on the part of the local officials. The courage of the Danville sheriff in defying the mob is brought out in sharp contrast with the cowardly actions of the Ohio officials under similar circumstances.—The important question of the loss of life in accidents on American railroads is succinctly stated in a brief article contributed by Ellery Sedgwick to *Leslie's Monthly* for February.—Several articles in the current magazines offer encouragement to those communities which are endeavoring to beautify their street and park systems. Chicago's new park service is admirably described in the *Century Magazine* for February by Mr. Henry G. Foreman. Mary Bronson Hartt, writing in the February number of the *World's Work*, makes many suggestions for the aesthetic improvement of such workaday utilities as shops, laundries, stables, and the back doors of dwellings.—In the same number of *World's Work* the successful development of Fresno, Cal., is described by Mr. French

Strother. Mr. Strother tells how a sandy waste has become, within a few years, a prosperous agricultural region; how the farmers of the vicinity have learned and applied scientific agricultural methods and coöperation in business; and now novel advertising methods have been employed to bring settlers into the community.—The first of Mr. Cleveland Moffett's series of articles on "The Shameful Misuse of Wealth," in *Success*, is devoted to Newport and the doings of the millionaire set there.

**Travel and Adventure.**—In the *Booklovers Magazine* for February there is an illustrated description of winter sports in the upper Engadine, by P. Henry.—There is also a bright paper in this number by Zaida Ben Yusuf, entitled "A Kyoto Memory."—The February *Outing* is more crowded than usual with entertaining accounts of travel and adventure far and near. "East End London at Play" is the title of a sketch by Mr. Ralph D. Paine. There is an illustrated article on boating on the Nile, by Alonzo Clark Robinson, while Edwyn Sandys describes the marshes of Manitoba; and Clifton Johnson, by means of text and photographs combined, gives us glimpses into the out-of-the-way life in the Louisiana swamps. This last-mentioned paper should be read in connection with the description of the Everglades of Florida by Edwin Asa Dix and John N. Maconigle, in the *Century*.—*McClure's* for February has one of A. W. Rolker's well-written stories about wild-animal trapping.—In the *Metropolitan Magazine*, Mr. Arthur Heming has a story and drawings to illustrate the method still employed by the Indian trappers and hunters in the wilderness of northern Canada,—a region which the *Metropolitan Magazine* commissioned Mr. Heming to explore last summer.—"Making a Treaty with Menelik" is the title of an article contributed by Consul-General Skinner to the *World's Work* for February. It will be remembered that Mr. Skinner served as head of the expedition to Abyssinia which resulted in a treaty between the United States and King Menelik. The whole story of this mission is told by Mr. Skinner in his article.—In the February number of *Leslie's Monthly*, Miss Agnes C. Laut narrates the adventures of Vitus Bering, the discoverer of Alaska. This paper is the first of a series by Miss Laut which will deal with all the great discoveries of our western coast.—Prof. Henry Loomis Nelson writes in *Harper's* for February on the work of the great La Salle, the pioneer of our middle West.

**Notes from the Seat of War.**—Mr. John Fox, Jr., the American author and correspondent, who for obvious reasons is unable to tell very much about the actual fighting in the far East, gives in the February *Scribner's* an amusing account of the war correspondent's daily life in Manchuria. Mr. Thomas F. Millard, writing in the same magazine, discusses the future of the war correspondent, expressing the hope that, instead of being abolished, he will be formally recognized by the governments.—The only American magazine which seems to have any fresh material from the seat of war in the far East is *Leslie's Monthly*, which publishes in its February number two papers containing the personal narratives of officers in the Japanese army who participated in the siege of Port Arthur. The principal one of these narratives is that of a lieutenant of engineers, who describes the struggle which attended the taking of each one of the prominent forts. A sap-

per's story, on the other hand, describes the underground fighting and the tunneling.

**Literary Papers.**—The *Atlantic*, as usual, leads off among the popular magazines this month in distinctively literary articles. These include "Hans Breitmann as Romany Rye," by Elizabeth Robins Pennell; "George Herbert as a Religious Poet," by George H. Palmer; "Six Cleopatras," by William Everett; "Matthew Arnold Intime," by Peter A. Sillard; and the second installment of Thoreau's Journal.—In the *Booklovers Magazine* for February, Mr. T. M. Parrott outlines "The Beginnings of American Fiction," covering the "era of imitation."—An interesting paper by William Archer, in the *Cosmopolitan* for February, is entitled "Hendrik Ibsen, Philosopher or Poet?"—*Lippincott's Magazine* has an editorial appreciation of the late John Foster Kirk, who was for many years the editor of *Lippincott's*.—In *Munsey's* for February, Richard Le Gallienne discourses on "American Authors of To-Day."—Henry T. Fink writes characteristically, in *Harper's*, on "Love-Affairs of Heroines."

**Religion, Theology, and Ethics in the Periodicals.**—The American reading public is quite prone to pass by the "heavy" quarterlies, bimonthlies, and monthlies whose special province is the field of philosophy, and yet these special journals frequently contain much material of general interest. For example, the current number of the *Bibliotheca Sacra*, the Oberlin quarterly edited by Prof. G. F. Wright, has articles on "The Religious Life of Modern Japan," by George E. Albrecht; on "The Authority of the Hebrew Prophet," by Francis B. Denio; on "The Ecclesiastical Situation in Scotland," by James Lindsay; and on "What Is It to Be Educated?" by Charles W. Super. Dr. Edward M. Merrins contributes, from the medical point of view, the first of a series of papers discussing the question "Did Jesus Die of a Broken Heart?"—In the *Princeton Theological Review* for the current quarter, "The Multitude of Denominations" is the title of an informing paper by Dr. Meade C. Williams, while Dr. James S. Dennis writes authoritatively on "The Educational Campaign of Missions in India." Of a more abstract

character is Dr. James Lindsay's essay on "Greek Philosophy of Religion."—Among the titles appearing in the table of contents of the *Methodist Review* (New York) for January-February are "The Religious Life of Italy and Switzerland—a Contrast," by L. Oscar Kuhus; "Notes on the Book of Mormon," by E. B. T. Spencer; "Present-Day Methodist Preaching," by James Mudge; "Dante's Message to the Preacher," by R. J. Wyckoff; "Saint Paul as a Poet," by David Keppel; and "Science, and Science Falsely So Called," by William Love.—In the *Biblical World* (University of Chicago) there are studies in Old Testament prophecy, by President William R. Harper, and several interesting, brief articles on exploration and discovery in ancient ruins.—In the *Homiletic Review* (January), Dr. Charles E. Jefferson discusses "The Influence of Great Cities on the Sense of Personal Responsibility."—The *Missionary Review of the World* (January) gives a review of the past year by Robert E. Speer, and "The World's Outlook in 1905," by Dr. Arthur T. Pierson. *Association Men*, the magazine of the International Young Men's Christian Association, publishes in its January issue an editorial review of the association's progress during the past five years.—The *Catholic World* (New York) has articles on "American Education and the Mosely Commission," by J. C. Monaghan; on "The Catholic Revival in Holland," by "A Dutchman"; and on "The Present Position of Darwinism," by James J. Walsh.—In the *Open Court* (Chicago), Chauncey J. Hawkins writes on "Excavations and the Bible"; the Rev. Adolf Roeder on "Parsifal"; and Charles Kassel on "The Fall of the Temple," while "Image Worship" is discussed by Dr. Paul Carus, the editor.—In his other periodical, the *Monist* (quarterly, Chicago), Dr. Carus writes on "The Christian Doctrine of Resurrection"; A. J. Edmunds reviews "An Ancient Moslem Account of Christianity"; and William Benjamin Smith discusses "The Meaning of the Epithet Nazorean (Nazarene)."—There are papers in the *International Journal of Ethics* (Philadelphia) for the current quarter on "The Ethics of Gambling," by John A. Hobson; on "The Political and Ethical Aspects of Lynching," by Alfred P. Dennis; on "Carlyle's Ethics," by Charles J. Goodwin; and on "The Vivisection Problem," by Albert Leffingwell.

## THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

**England's Policy in Tibet.**—Writing in the *Contemporary Review* for January, Mr. Alexander Ular says: "The Manchu dynasty did not want the effective suzerainty of Tibet, which they had abandoned long ago. They highly appreciated the gracious and skillful behavior of England, which strengthened their moral situation in the eyes of the Chinese and of the world. Actual superintendence or administration of Tibet would have occasioned them expense and other disagreeable consequences; mere moral prestige without any necessity for action was far better. A splendid performance of 'saving-the-face policy' was to be accomplished. The ratification of the Anglo-Tibetan treaty was not only to oblige, mutually, China and England, and to establish a community of views that was likely to be of great consequence just at this moment, but it was also to strike a great blow against the specter of Russian supremacy in the far East. More, even,—it was to bring about a community of interests that could successfully oppose any extravagant imperialist tendencies

of victorious Japan. In spite of such beautiful prospects for England and the Manchu dynasty, the enterprise has resulted in a complete failure."

**Universities in India.**—The Bishop of Madras gives, in the *Nineteenth Century* for January, a rather pessimistic account of "Higher Education in India." Of necessity, university education, which is purely European, has been divorced from religion, yet the native tradition has always held religion and education as one. Teaching in the English language is another drawback, as the effort to acquire knowledge and at the same time express ideas in a new language is often too much for students. "It is safe to say that not more than four thousand of those who matriculate every year at the five universities are *bona fide* university students, intending to study for a degree. This is not a large number out of a population of three hundred millions. But it is too large for real efficiency. It is no exaggeration, I think, to say that at least half, if not two-thirds,

of the students at the various colleges ought not to be studying at a university at all. My own experience would be that out of every hundred students who are reading either English literature or philosophy at the universities, about sixty are quite unfitted to study these subjects as they ought to be studied at a university. Neither their abilities nor their previous teaching in any way fit them for a university education."

**A Museum of "International Peace from War."**—The famous Polish writer and philanthropist, Jean de Bloch, established in Poland, some years ago, a museum in which was to be gathered a complete assortment of implements of war and relics, and representations which were intended to illustrate how terrible a great war is, and "thus further the cause of peace." In year 1900, this museum was established formally at Luzerne, Switzerland, and in the year just past (1904) it has been practically completed. In addition to implements of war and all sorts of munitions of war, the museum contains paintings and sculpture depicting scenes of war, allegorical and realistic, particularly illustrating the suffering brought about by the "international revelry." In the *Revue Universelle* (Paris), Jules Rais devotes several pages, with illustrations, to a description of this museum.

**Will the War Rejuvenate the Orient?**—An Italian political economist (Gino Arias), writing in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence), considers the social causes of the Russo-Japanese war. He regards the attitude of Western nations in the Orient as purely mercenary, and asserts that the profits derived from "introducing civilization" are "often the result of trafficking with conscience, if not with infamy." Russia, he declares, is in the unique position of asking, not markets so much as the missing elements to enable her to utilize her latent agricultural and mineral resources through union with the population and free capital of China. The war he ascribes, not to personal ambition on the part of the Czar, but to pressure from the landed classes. For Japan, he continues, the war is a national necessity; she must expand or die. This writer sees in the competition of the rejuvenated Orient only an additional spur to our own civilization and the betterment of all conditions of labor the world over. As to the final result of the war itself, he believes that "even if victory should ultimately fall to Russia, nothing can stop the victorious march of the Japanese among Asiatic peoples, seconded as it is by them."

**Kropotkin on the Russian Revolution.**—The well-known Russian author, social reformer, and philosophical anarchist, Prince Peter Kropotkin, contributes to the *Nineteenth Century* an article on the present internal condition of the empire. It is too late, he insists, to settle the question by mere petty concessions. "It is said that they think at the Winter Palace to pass a few measures in favor of the peasants, but to avoid making any constitutional concessions. However, this will not help. Any improvement in the condition of the peasants will be welcome. But if they think that therefore they will be able to limit their concessions to the invitation of a few representatives of the provinces to the Council of State, where they may take part in its deliberations, this is a gross mistake. Such a measure might have pacified their minds in 1881, if Alexander III. had honestly fulfilled the last

will of his father. It might have had, perhaps, some slight effect ten years ago, if Nicholas II. had listened then to the demand of the zemstvos. But now this will do no longer. The energy of the forces set in motion is too great to be satisfied with such a trifling result. And if they do not make concessions very soon, the court party may easily learn the lesson which Louis Philippe learned in the last days of February, 1848."

**What Pushkin Means to Russia.**—A bright essay on the Russian poet Pushkin appears in the Dutch review *De Gids* (Haarlem). Pushkin, says the writer, "was a man of liberal views—too liberal for the authorities—who transferred him from the capital to a post in a minor town; but he was beloved of the people, and his memory is venerated in all parts of the Czar's dominions. Russia is poor in statues, and those which she does possess are not works of art, but the statue of Pushkin in Moscow, his native place, is a notable exception."

**How Russia's Subjects Regard the War.**—In Schwarzort, East Prussia, recently, the waves left on the seashore a corked bottle. It contained a sheet of paper on which there were written with pencil the following words in the Letish language: "We, too, are driven to the slaughter, like many others before us. Why does not our Emperor Nicholas think of those thousands of poor widows and orphans who after their husbands and fathers are dead become the prize of misery? He has already sacrificed innumerable masses to the war, and yet he wants more and more. Now we, too, have to go there, where men are murdering one another, men who never have seen one another and have no reason whatever to fight. When will this murdering cease? Is the Czar quite insatiable? Oh, fisher! if you find these words on the shore, remember us, destined to die, in your prayer, and pray God that he might give us peace soon." In commenting on this piece of news which it publishes in its columns, the Polish newspaper *Wiek Nowy* (New Age, of Lemberg, Austria) says: "The Letish language of this message, entirely unknown to the Prussian fishermen who found it, gives the best proof that there is no invention. It is a real voice of despair of a Letish marine against the cruelty of the war, and at the same time a significant sign that the war with Japan does not claim the sympathy of the Baltic provinces, and that really all the people want immediate peace."

**Russia's Sea and River-Borne Commerce.**—The article on "The Development of Russia's Merchant Marine" which appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* recently, and portions of which were reproduced in this REVIEW for November, has been supplemented by a second article in the French review on the same general subject by the same writer, M. J. Charles-Roux. In this second article, M. Charles-Roux considers the ports which send out and receive traffic carried in the transportation lines, treated of in our article last month. Considering these sea, lake, and river ports in order, this French writer begins with the White Sea and its principal town, Archangel. The White Sea, he says, has really belonged to Russia longer than any other of her waterways. It was the only border sea that belonged to Russia at the time of Peter the Great. With its extreme northern position, however, far from the great maritime routes of the world, locked by ice for



several months of the year, inhospitable even during the summer, and bordering a poor country, the White Sea has had but very little part in the economic development of Russia. Despite the establishment and operation of the railroad through Perm to Siberia, Archangel as a port of entry and export scarcely takes fourth rank among Russian ports. If the number of vessels which enter the White Sea annually (462) is relatively large, the proportion of steam vessels (43) is comparatively very small. Next in order the Caspian Sea is considered, this body of water playing a much larger part in the economic development of Russia. On it there is a fleet of 800 vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 230,000, of which 263 are steam vessels. Astrakhan, if ranked by the amount of tonnage arriving at and leaving its ports, is the greatest Russian port, surpassing Odessa by nearly 3,000,000 tons yearly. The largest factor in the commercial importance of Astrakhan, and indeed of the whole Caspian, has been the production and transportation of petroleum and naphtha. This dates from 1878, when the first line of petroleum transports was inaugurated between Baku and Astrakhan. The rôle of the Pacific in the maritime history of the Russian Empire was even more modest when the present war broke out. The story of Vladivostok and Dalny has been told many times. This brings us naturally to Russian shipping interests in the Black Sea. This has increased wonderfully during the past decade, since the opening and operation of the Trans-Siberian and Trans-Manchurian railways, practically connecting the Black Sea with the Pacific Ocean. Other ports on the Pacific, such as Nicolaievsk, are destined to feel still further the impetus of the volunteer fleet, which was born in the Black Sea. The two most important of Russia's bordering seas are, of course, the Black Sea and the Baltic. These two absorb 96 per cent. of the sea-borne commerce. Eighty-five per cent. of Russian exports, and 90 per cent. of the empire's imports, pass over the Baltic. Now Odessa has actually become the first maritime port of Russia, with a total tonnage of 5,570,536. This is the great grain port. Besides, there are the Black Sea and the Sea of Azov, the other important ports of Nicolaïew, Eupatoria, Kertch, Taganrog, Marioupol, Batum, and others. In passing, M. Charles-Roux makes the point that the commerce of the Black Sea is mostly in the hands of the Russians, while that of the Baltic remains largely under the control of foreigners.—Germans, English, Swedes, particularly,—and even the Russian bottoms are generally manned by Finnish seamen. The principal reason for the languishing of steam-vessel construction in Russia, says this French writer, is the high price of metal and the comparatively small number of expert shipbuilders.

**The Baltic Fleet and the Danes.**—A spirited description of the passage of the Baltic fleet through Danish waters is given a commanding place in the illustrated magazine *Hver 8 Dag* (Copenhagen). The writer, formerly an officer in the Danish navy, comments on the passage of the fleet and its bearing on a possible future war between Russia and England. His description and comment indicate that the Danish navy is stronger and better equipped than the rest of the world had imagined. He says on this point: "Ten of our best vessels did police duty while the Russians passed. If it be asked, What could our small ships do against these mighty ironclads? we reply, See how helpless they are in our narrow passages and shallow waters.

They dare not proceed until all dangerous places are indicated by chartered private steamers. This is in time of peace. But what would it be in time of war, when we extinguish our beacon lights and call in our scouting vessels? We have seen battleships of every nation go aground in these waters. We know all our coasts; our vessels are of the right type; and we know how to manage them. Our waters are our strength; in them we can defend our neutrality."

**Japanese War Capacity.**—Many economists, at the commencement of the Russo-Japanese war, says Prof. Ozaki Goto (writing in *La Revue*), were of opinion that Japan had neither military nor financial resources to carry on a war, but they have been deceived. The professor then endeavors to throw a little light on the economic condition of Japan. In 1893, the population of Japan was nearly forty-one millions; in 1903, it had risen to forty-six millions. Can the country feed this continually growing population? The Japanese live on rice principally, and the increase in the production of rice has kept pace with the increase in the population. The Japanese are essentially an agricultural people, but of late years they have also been actively engaged in commerce, and in various industries. In the years 1894-1903, the foreign trade of Japan has almost tripled itself, and simultaneously there has been a steady accumulation of public and private means. Nor has the peasant remained outside this movement. More sober than the most sober of European peasants, and requiring nothing but a little rice for his sustenance, the rest of his harvest forms the principal source of his revenue; that is to say, his rice and his raw silk have become two marketable commodities, increasing in value every year. Another important element in the prosperity of the country is the improved condition of the working classes. Not only have their wages risen, but there has been a good deal of legislation in their favor, and the laws affecting them are being constantly amended to their advantage. A rapid survey like this shows that for a population growing at the rate of 10 per cent. in ten years, with a foreign trade tripled, agriculturists selling their produce at double the original price, and workmen receiving double their former wages, all in the same space of time, and without speaking of the profits of the capitalists, etc., which have also increased, Japan's budget has easily tripled itself in these ten years. During the present year, exports and imports have increased at a tremendous rate; and since the superiority of the Japanese navy has been confirmed, there is more security than ever for free communication with the Japanese ports. In conclusion, says the writer, the patriotism of the forty-six million souls is incited in the highest degree; and, in the face of a national danger, it goes without saying that the people are ready to sacrifice everything for their Emperor and their country. Was not a miserable sum of one hundred and sixty-seven thousand francs all that the public treasury of a nation of thirty millions possessed when Napoleon engaged France in a long campaign? We cannot tell how many years will pass before Japan comes to her last penny.

**The Italian Language in Malta.**—A detailed history of the entire language question in Malta is given by Signor Nicocolo Roncola in the *Italia Moderna* (Rome). He claims that the Maltese are really Italian, and that there is no justification in arbitrarily proscribing the Italian language. He declares that after the



thirteenth century a large number of colonists from Sicily were brought from the island, and that, though not able to impose the Italian dialect on the Arab-speaking population, they did succeed in making Italian the official language. From 1530 on, although the rulers were French, Spanish, and English, Italian held its own in all printed documents, and even up to 1813 the British authorities continued to publish the official acts in Italian. After the treaty of Paris, in 1814, which gave Malta and Gozo definitely to Great Britain, official documents began to bear English translations on their backs. Since then there have been many protests by English governors against the use of Italian, and several commissions sent to study the question of a change. When the unification of Italy began, Jesuits and Clericals waged, from Malta, a constant war against the union and against the suppression of Papal temporal power. Signor Roncola charges the English with aiding the Clericals in their campaign against the Liberals, which has resulted even in fighting. Thus, he concludes that the Italian language and culture have two enemies,—the British imperial and military interests, and militant clericalism. Both these elements, he thinks, are to be traced in the events of recent years, which have practically accomplished the British desires in ousting Italian as an official tongue, the resistance of the people having weakened.

**Beginnings of the French Press.**—Journalism proper began in France with the establishment of the *Gazette de France* (1631). This, however, writes Henry Bordeaux, in the *Correspondant*, was nothing but a weekly issue of official notes, with the health of the king as its chief interest. The *Journal des Savants* (1665) and the *Mercurie Galant* (1672) were chiefly concerned with science and art. The first French daily was the *Journal de Paris*, which did not appear till 1777. It is remarkable that whenever journalism made any effort to emancipate itself it met with determined opposition from those in power. There were, however, few journals before the Revolution, but there was a public opinion, and a singularly powerful one, too. Whence came this public opinion? From whom did it receive its orders? How was its judgment formed? From the organization called the "Nouvelles," replies the writer, and M. Frantz Funck-Brentano is the author of a book on the subject. Their influence and their mode of propaganda are surely little known. We learn that any one might be a nouvelliste. The first to "assist" at a festival, an exhibition, a military review, or any other event, and give an account of it, was a nouvelliste. A nouvelliste is one who knows the latest news every day; he knows everything; follows everything; takes part in everything. As the state became centralized, people in the provinces became less satisfied with local news, while no Parisian remained satisfied with the news of his quarter. It was this curiosity which created the nouvellistes. Soon the nouvelliste had his provincial and foreign correspondents, and correspondents at the court, in the ministry, and at the embassies, and the field became so large that the nouvelliste found it necessary to specialize. There were nouvellistes d'état, nouvellistes du Parnasse, nouvellistes dramatiques, nouvellistes militaires, nouvellistes voyageurs, and nouvellistes turlupins (conundrum journalists). But where did the public of Paris go to learn the news published orally? The editorial offices were the great Paris

gardens—the Luxembourg, the Tuileries, the Palais-Royal. At first the news was published in the most frequented parts, the first point being the Pont-Neuf. As time went on, the nouvellistes, who had first sought out their public, recognized that the public, having acquired the taste for news, was ready to follow them wherever they chose to go. The Luxembourg Gardens became the center of the *Journal des Débats Littéraires*, and Voltaire, Diderot, and Rousseau honored the assembly with their presence. The Tuileries Gardens was the center of political journalism and the journalism of fashion, sport, etc. The most famous of the Paris news gardens was the Palais-Royal. In those days, existence could not be imagined possible if you could not ask news of every one you met. It was a sort of bureau of correspondence, and strangers spoke to each other as neighbors. Here it was that the nouvellistes invented treaties, displaced ministries, made sovereigns live or die at their pleasure, for here they pretended to know the operations of courts and the secrets of cabinets. As the Revolution approached, the nouvelliste had gained in importance, in authority, in credit, and the public, not satisfied with meeting him in the public promenades, followed him to the café. The nouvelliste became the soul of the café.

**The Australian Aborigines.**—The Hon. J. Mildred Creed, writing in the *Nineteenth Century* for January, refutes the old belief that the Australian aborigines are the lowest of all races in the scale of intelligence. That idea originally spread owing to the lowness in the scale of intelligence of the first white settlers. The blacks learn rapidly, and the standard of success in their schools is higher than that of white schools. The girls make excellent servants. All aborigines who have opportunities learn English thoroughly, and never use pidgin English.

**Hall Caine on the Religious Novel.**—The novel of the future "will be religious in the highest and best sense just in the degree in which it is permeated by the sense of life." Thus, Mr. Hall Caine thinks (in an article in the *World's Work and Play*) we shall have more and more religious novels, and that novelists will tend more and more to be those endowed with the best minds, the richest natures, the strongest souls. Nevertheless, Mr. Hall Caine does not think that a good novel can ever be "a conscious amalgam of fiction and religion, or that the novelist who has any sense of art can at any time allow himself to 'mount the pulpit.' . . . If the writer of fiction, while in the act of writing, is not wholly occupied by the human story he is telling—the joys and sorrows, the loves and hates, of his characters—the result will be a bad novel." Once, the novelist confesses, he projected and partly wrote a story based on that of Mary Magdalene, but that novel will never see the light. The religious novel, as Mr. Hall Caine conceives it, which is to dominate future fiction, deals neither with the scenes nor characters of the religious world, nor yet with religious dogmas, "but with the religious sense in man, the feeling for the supernatural, the consciousness of God's governance of the universe, and that deepest of all questions—the meaning of life." He continues: "And in order to write a religious novel of this broadest character it is first of all necessary that the novelist should be a man who has lived much, felt much, read much, and thought much, and with that equipment has set about to use his own vehicle in its

only legitimate way, not as a sermon or philosophical treatise."

**A Comparison of Goethe and Beethoven.**—A study of these two great Germans from a psychological point of view appears in the *Grande Revue* (Paris), by Martial Douël. Goethe could not understand Beethoven, and Beethoven was greatly disappointed in Goethe when the two met. As Goethe became older, says the writer, "his ideal grew more restrained; and the wide and magnificent vision of the world which marks the masterpieces of his maturity gradually gave place to a narrower and more artificial conception of man and of the universe." With Beethoven, on the other hand, it was a constant expanding of his genius and his personality; and the spectacle of his obstinate struggle against misfortunes and ever-growing difficulties is both admirable and tragic. His whole life was one of "intimate" suffering; "deceived successively in his hopes, in his joys, and especially in his affections, he always returned to the only consolation left to him,—to give voice to the deep moans of his tortured soul, and thus express the inexpressible of the human heart. Hence the poignant moments of so many adagios in which weeps the infinite tenderness of his soul, and to understand them to the full in their truth and spontaneity, we should hear them in our darkest hours. Goethe's endeavor was to understand, whereas that of Beethoven was to express himself."

**Woman and Music.**—In *Occasional Papers* (London), Mr. J. Cuthbert Hadden, who writes on "Woman and Music," tries to explain why we have as yet had no female Bach, or Beethoven, or Wagner. He thinks it is due in a great measure to inadequate training. He writes: "As a matter of fact, granting to woman, for the moment, the possession of the heaven-sent power, she has had no real opportunity for developing it. Until quite recent times she has been altogether excluded from the field of art, while man has had hundreds of years to develop his intellect and emotions in an art direction. The construction of great works is not, it must be remembered, the outcome merely of imaginative impulse. It needs but a glance at the lives of the great composers to show us that the high gift of original creation has ever had to be fostered by active care and congenial surroundings. And it is just here that woman, either of choice or of necessity, has failed to secure the advantages and conditions necessary for her development as an artist. Take the typical illustration of Mendelssohn and his sister Fanny. The Mendelssohn biographers are unanimous in their testimony that the lady had the finer musical organization, and in her early years offered the greater musical promise. But what happened? The training of brother and sister gradually diverged—stopped short, in fact, with the girl, while the boy was encouraged and assisted by every available means. It was the old case of 'arrested development'—a probable genius being bound down by the dead weight of conventionality, social law, and unreasoning prejudice. Even now, so little chance of real, hearty encouragement has the woman who enters the field of musical composition that the very circumstance of her being a woman is made a kind of pretext for criticising her work on different lines from the work of men. 'A very good composition—for a woman' is what the critic, in effect, usually remarks."

**Remedies for Alcoholism.**—The ravages of alcoholism in France are causing much alarm among French thinkers, and the magazines of the republic are publishing many articles on the subject. In *La Revue*, Stéphane-Pol makes various suggestions with reference to the cure of the terrible evil. His proposals are: the abolition of the right to manufacture alcohol as food, except for pharmaceutical purposes; state monopoly in regard to industrial alcohol; in default of an injunction against the manufacture of alcohol, means to restrict the consumption of it; persuasive means to abandon the drink habit—societies, homes of rest, books, etc.; protection of the children of drunken parents; coercive measures for the cure or punishment of habitual drinkers; the exclusion from office of Deputies, judges, doctors, teachers, etc., of all persons addicted to alcoholism; energetic repression and more efficacious supervision to prevent fraud in the manufacture of fermented drinks. Capt. H. de Malleray, who writes in the *Revue de Paris* on "Alcohol in the Canteen," first describes the alcoholism of the French canteen, and then gives an account of the efforts at reform of the Dutch coöperative canteen, and is convinced that a similar system might be tried with advantage in France. The canteens in Holland are provided with papers and books, and their clients may read or write and partake of refreshments at a very cheap rate. The result is that tea and coffee, milk and cocoa, have gradually come to take the place of beer and alcohol, and though the profits are small, the canteen prospers.

**The Organ of Hearing.**—The important part played by the organ of hearing in the life of man is the subject of a kindly and sympathetic article in the *Deutsche Revue* by Dr. Ernst Urbantschitsch. He observes that the blind command much more sympathy than the deaf, and concedes that, for the young, at any rate, blindness may be a more serious affliction than deafness. He considers some of the typical psychological manifestations of deafness in different stages. In the early stage, the deaf seek to conceal the defect, and when they do not hear what is said to them are very shy about attracting notice to themselves by asking the speaker to repeat his words. In later stages, the deaf become irritable, then suspicious or distrustful; and, in the final stage, when the struggle against the malady has become too great, they become resigned, and accommodate themselves to a mode of life in accordance with their condition.

**Has the Speed of the Gulf Stream Increased?**—The report that the Gulf Stream now runs with greater speed than formerly, and its influence on the time required for the crossing of the Atlantic, furnishes the theme for an article, by Dr. W. Brennecke, in the German magazine *Umschau* (Frankfort). Dr. Brennecke analyzes the climatic and geographical reasons for the existence and continuance of the Gulf Stream, and points out how the change in the wind currents and the density of the atmosphere all affect the life and power of the famous current. This is chiefly dependent, he points out, on the location and extent of the areas of high and low pressure over the sea. A series of carefully made reports, over a long period of time, by the German Marine Observatory, would seem to indicate that the Gulf Stream now moves more rapidly than formerly.

# THE NEW BOOKS.

## NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

### A FEW VOLUMES OF HISTORY.

FOR each succeeding volume of Mr. James Ford Rhodes' "History of the United States" (Macmillan) the critics have only words of praise. The fifth volume, covering the years 1864-66, has recently come from the press. In the beginning of this volume, Mr. Rhodes gives a brief recapitulation of the salient events of the Civil War, and follows this with a detailed account of Sherman's Georgia campaign. Grant's Appomattox campaign, Lee's surrender, and the assassination of Lincoln are all treated within the limits of a single chapter. A long chapter is devoted to an account of society at the North during the war, and a similar chapter to society at the South. Another chapter is assigned to the treatment of prisoners of war. The volume closes with a fair and impartial account of reconstruction. Mr. Rhodes' treatment of the war itself, and of the issues growing out of the war, is that of an unbiased historian, and will meet, we think, with the cordial approbation of Southern as well as Northern participants in that great struggle.

The Hon. John A. Kasson's essay on "The Evolution of the Constitution of the United States of America" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), originally written by request of the Constitutional Centennial Commission, in 1887, is now published in a form convenient for general circulation. In his essay, Mr. Kasson gives a clear but condensed recital of the conditions preliminary to the original "Confederacy"; a statement of the infirmities and ineffectiveness of the Articles of Confederation; the recognition of the failure of those articles by the patriots of the Revolution; the successive steps by which they sought the consent of the States to a general convention to provide a substitute government; and, finally, the manner in which they accomplished the organization of a nation. Included in this volume is a useful history of the Monroe Doctrine, also by Mr. Kasson.

Coincident with the Hon. James Bryce's recent visit to the United States is the appearance of a new, enlarged, and revised edition of "The Holy Roman Empire" (Macmillan). This work, originally issued forty years ago, has been the standard. This latest edition has taken into account fully the results of modern historical research. A concluding chapter, sketching the constitution of the new German Empire and the forces which have given it strength and cohesion, has been appended. A chronological table and three maps

have also been added, and the book has been revised throughout. Typographically it is very satisfactory.

"Arbitration and the Hague Court" (Houghton, Mifflin), by John W. Foster, president of the National Arbitration Conference, was prepared in response to a resolution of the recent Mohonk Arbitration Conference. Mr. Foster, who has had a longer and more varied diplomatic career than perhaps any other American, gives in this volume a brief review of the facts and conditions leading up to the famous Hague Peace Conference, and also characterizes the personnel and spirit of the conference.

A useful and comprehensive volume is Mr. Charles Edmund Akers' "History of South America, 1854-1904" (Dutton). We have had works on the Spanish conquest of the southern continent, and more or less fragmentary studies of sections of South America, but this is the first comprehensive history in English of the last half-century of the South American states—since they attained independence from Spanish control. Mr. Akers has lived many years in South America, and has been a journalist in almost all portions of the continent. While we cannot vouch for the accuracy of all his history, it can be seen that he has laid under tribute all the important works of information by Spanish and Portuguese chroniclers, and authors of other nationalities.



JAMES FORD RHODES.



SIMON BOLIVAR.

(From a bronze tablet. Frontispiece [reduced] from "History of South America.")

He has treated the movements, tendencies, and facts which have influenced the entire continent, and has then endeavored to show how the national character of the people of each state assumed distinctive features as a result of local conditions, modified by foreign immigration and other facts. There are some interesting and new illustrations.

Miss Agnes C. Laut asks us to readjust our notions of the early history of the western United States. Contrary to the notions imbibed at school, she says in her work "The Pathfinders of the West" (Macmillan), Marquette, Joliet, and La Salle did not discover the vast region beyond the Great Lakes.

Twelve years before these explorers ever thought of visiting the Great West, two of the most intrepid *voyageurs* that France ever produced, the Sieur Pierre Esprit Radisson and the Sieur Médard Chouart Groseillers, fur traders of Three Rivers, Quebec, who sacrificed all their earthly possessions to the enthusiasm of discovery, explored and made known the great American West. Miss Laut is doing a work



MISS AGNES C. LAUT.

which deserves well of historians in following up to their sources the stories and traditions of the Western history of our country and retelling the stories in her characteristically clear style. This volume is excellently printed, and is illustrated with many pictures. There is an historical appendix, and an index.

One of the useful and at the same time interesting books which have been the outcome of the war fever which seems to be in the air is Charles Welsh's "Famous Battles of the Nineteenth Century" (Wessels). This is a collection of descriptions of battles in the British war with Burma, in the South American war for independence, in the Belgian war for independence, in the struggle of Texas with Mexico, in the British war with Afghanistan, in our Mexican War, in the Crimean War, and in the Indian Mutiny. These descriptions are by famous journalists, among them Archibald Forbes, George A. Henty, Maj. Arthur Griffiths, and other well-known writers. The volume is edited by Mr. Welsh, with nine full-page illustrations.

"A Short History of Ancient Egypt" (Dana Estes) has been written by Percy E. Newberry, author of "The Amherst Papyri," and John Gastrang, reader in Egyptian archaeology in the University of Liverpool. The materials for this work, the authors say in their preface, have been collected for more than a generation. The intention is to outline ancient Egypt from the founding of the monarchy for three thousand years until the decadence of the empire. The volume is provided with maps.

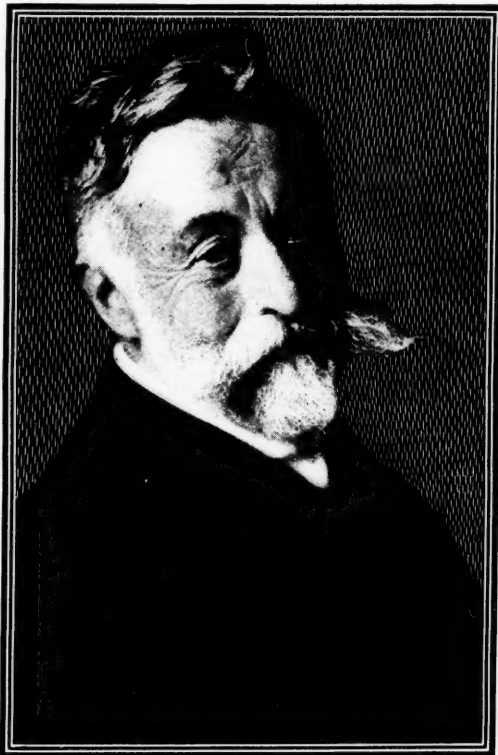
Miss Ida M. Tarbell's two-volume "History of the Standard Oil Company" (McClure, Phillips & Co.) is an exhaustive and yet succinct presentation of the rise and development of a great American industry. The book is chiefly concerned with the methods by which the corporation whose name appears in the title arrogated to itself the control of the petroleum output in this country. Closely related to the main theme is the dramatic story of the rush to the oil fields in the '60's, and of the fortunes that were made and lost in the wild speculation that followed. There is in Miss Tarbell's treatment of the stubborn fight made by the oil producers against the encroachments of the refiners' mo-

nopoly a sympathetic note and at the same time a sureness of touch such as only a first hand acquaintance with the facts could give. Her book is in every sense a history,—not an economic dissertation. Its disclosures of the manipulations by which a few men in Cleveland in the early '70's secured virtual control of the railroad interests of the country for purposes of personal gain should add force to the popular demand for anti-rebate legislation, as voiced by President Roosevelt.

Hiram College, Ohio, has gained a national reputation through the lives of two of its presidents, one of whom, James A. Garfield, became President of the United States, while the other, Dr. Burke A. Hinsdale, achieved in the teachers' profession an eminence almost as great. The college has had a history of more than half a century, which is fittingly commemorated in a volume prepared by Dr. F. M. Green, with an introduction by Prof. E. B. Wakefield (Cleveland: O. S. Hubbell Printing Company).

#### BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS.

There is more history than biography in the attractive volume by Albert Bigelow Paine entitled "Thomas Nast, His Period and His Pictures" (Macmillan). To



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THOMAS NAST.

write of Thomas Nast's period is to write of one of the most interesting epochs in our history. It was during, and for twenty years after, the Civil War that the great cartoonist did his important work, and made his pic-



tures a part of the documentary story to which all the historians must go if they are to write a satisfactory record of those times. Many of Nast's most famous cartoons are reproduced in this volume; and the whole story of his connection with the Tweed exposures, the Greeley campaign of 1872, and other important episodes in our political history is told in detail.

The new biographies of Jackson and Clay, noticed in recent numbers of the REVIEW of REVIEWS, are closely followed by the "Life of Thomas Hart Benton," by William M. Meigs (Lippincott). All these works have points in common, not only in the subject-matter, but in method of treatment as well. Each one of the three works makes use of materials lately discovered, and also of conversations with aged contemporaries of the statesmen whose lives are narrated. Benton, the great Missourian, outlived both Jackson and Clay, and many persons are now living who knew the aged Senator in his latter years. His daughter, the widow of General Frémont, died only a year or two ago, in California. To the people of the West, especially, the lives of these pioneer statesmen of their section will always have a peculiar fascination.

Mr. Peyton F. Miller, a lawyer of Hudson, N. Y., has written an entertaining series of personal sketches, entitled "A Group of Great Lawyers of Columbia County, New York" (privately printed). An unusual number of men of national reputation have at one time or another graced the bar of Columbia County, including such names as Martin Van Buren, Samuel J. Tilden, Robert Livingston, Chancellor Robert R. Livingston, Edward Livingston, and others whose careers have been hardly less noteworthy. Members of the bar of New York State will find Mr. Miller's pages crowded with interesting reminiscences of the great lawyers of the past.

Miss Geraldine Brooks, whose "Dames and Daughters of Colonial Days" has done so much to renew the acquaintance of American women with their foremothers, has written an interesting and instructive volume on "Dames and Daughters of the French Court" (Crowell). Following essentially the same method which she pursued in her sketching of American types, Miss Brooks relates the stories of some of the most interesting careers in French history. As is indicated in the title, Miss Brooks views these women in their character as members of French households; and it is from this intimate and unusual point of view that all her sketches are written. The women whose lives are treated in this volume are Madame de Sévigné, Madame de Lafayette, Madame Geoffrin, Mademoiselle de Lespinasse, Madame Roland, Madame Le Brun, Madame de Staël, Madame Récamier, Madame Valmore, and Madame Rémusat.

Gen. James Grant Wilson has written a two-volume account of Thackeray's visits to the United States in the years 1852-53 and 1855-56 (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Interspersed through the text of these volumes are numerous drawings by Thackeray, facsimiles of letters, and other interesting *memorabilia* of Thackeray's sojourn in our country. Appended to General Wilson's work is a bibliography of Thackeray in the United States by Frederick S. Dickson.

"Bravest of the Brave" is the title given to a sketch of Capt. Charles de Langlade, by Mr. Publius V. Lawson, of Menasha, Wis. Langlade was one of the French-Canadian pioneers of Michigan and Wisconsin,—a warrior who fought with the French and Indians against Braddock and Washington in the French and Indian

War, and later aided the British in our War for Independence. For these latter services he was rewarded by the British Government with the post of Indian superintendent at Green Bay. From materials in the possession of the Wisconsin Historical Society, and from other sources, Mr. Lawson has constructed a most interesting sketch of this ardent pioneer and fighter.

Quite a number of letters written by John Ruskin to Charles Eliot Norton have been gathered into chronological order and published in a two-volume work (Houghton, Mifflin), with a number of interesting and intimate portraits. Professor Norton was one of Ruskin's closest friends, and these letters make an excellent biography of the great Englishman. In his preface, Professor Norton expresses the reluctance with which he brought himself to publish these letters. Many of the most intimate portions are omitted, the omissions being indicated in the text. The English artist-philosopher in these letters expresses his opinions on American and European politics, sketches his friends, and gives glimpses of his work. The first letter is dated at Denmark, October 31, 1855, and the last at Brantwood, March 3, 1887.

The "Great Englishmen of the Sixteenth Century" whom Mr. Sidney treats under this title (Scribners) are Sir Thomas More, Sir Philip Sidney, Edmund Spenser, Francis Bacon, and William Shakespeare. He has added two other chapters to the book, entitled "The Spirit of the Sixteenth Century" and "Foreign Influences on Shakespeare." The volume is based on a series of lectures delivered before the Lowell Institute in 1903. They are, of course, developments of Mr. Lee's studies and work in his capacity of editor of "The Dictionary of National Biography." Mr. Lee, by the way, is a corresponding member of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

A complete and authoritative "Narrative of the Career of Hernando De Soto," as found in the original documents, chiefly based on the diary of Rodrigo Rangel, his private secretary, together with an account of the great expedition to the Southwest of the United States, has been translated from Oviedo's "Historia General y Natural de las Indias" by Buckingham Smith, and has been issued in two volumes by A. S. Barnes & Co. There is an historical introduction by Edward Gaylord Bourne, professor of history in Yale University. The conquest of Florida is told by a knight who was a member of the expedition. Several portraits, hitherto unpublished, of De Soto himself appear in the volume, to which is appended his life and some of his letters.

It seems quite appropriate that an enthusiastic Floridian should have written "The Story of Ponce de Leon." Mr. Florian A. Mann, author of the "Story of the Huguenots," has made a very readable little volume out of the life-story of that soldier, knight, and gentleman whose quest for the Fountain of Youth led to the discovery of Florida. The book has been printed for the author at De Land, Fla.

One of the most interesting characters in English history was Sir Walter Raleigh. To Englishmen of today he represents the genesis of British imperialism in the modern sense. To Americans he stands for that sixteenth-century daring and love of adventure to which the English colonies in the new world owed their existence. The new sketch of Raleigh, by Sir Rennell Rodd, in the "English Men of Action" series (Macmillan) is a well-written account of a career that was full of dramatic incident.

## LITERATURE AND CRITICISM.

In "The Wampum Library of American Literature" (Longmans), Prof. Brander Matthews edits a volume of "American Familiar Verse," while William Morton Payne contributes selections of "American Literary Criticism." The Wampum Library, we may remind our readers, has been planned to include a series of uniform volumes, each of which shall deal with the development of a single literary species, presenting the evolution of this definite form here in the United States, and presenting, in chronological sequence, typical examples chosen from the writings of American authors. No selection has been made, however, from any living American writer whose birth has occurred since December 31, 1850. In Mr. Payne's book of literary criticism the twelve authors from whom selections have been made all belong to the nineteenth century. These are the authors chosen: Richard Henry Dana, George Ripley, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Edgar Allan Poe, Margaret Fuller Ossoli, James Russell Lowell, Walt Whitman, Edwin Percy Whipple, Edmund Clarence Stedman, William Dean Howells, Sidney Lanier, and Henry James. In each case the selection made is of a character which seems to the editor to illustrate in the most typical manner the critical ideas, methods, and interests of the author. It is believed that Professor Matthews' book is the first attempt ever made to select the best specimens of familiar verse by American authors only. Naturally, the list of verse-makers from whose productions selections were made is much longer than Mr. Payne's list of American critics. Readers will find in the group very many names made familiar by our popular magazines within past decades.

A helpful volume of literary criticism is Jessie B. Rittenhouse's "Younger American Poets" (Little, Brown). This is not an attempt to cover the entire field of American poetry, but to take up the younger and later American poets and place them properly against the literary background of the country. The principal poets considered are Richard Hovey, Lizette Woodworth Reese, Bliss Carman, Louise Imogen Guiney, George E. Santayana, Josephine Preston Peabody, Charles G. D. Roberts, Edith M. Thomas, Madison Cawein, George E. Woodberry, Frederic Lawrence Knowles, Alice Brown, Richard Burton, Clinton Scollard, Mary McNeil Fenollosa, Ridgely Torrence, Gertrude Hall, and Arthur Upton.

Mr. George P. Baker, who is assistant professor of English in Harvard University, has edited a little volume on "The Forms of Public Address" (Holt). This consists of famous historical letters—both private and open—editorials, inaugural addresses, speeches of eulogy, commemoration, dedication, welcome, and farewell, and after-dinner speeches. There is an appendix, and explanatory notes.

The Crowells are bringing out, in small handy volumes, the entire "First Folio Shakespeare." The latest play to be issued is "Julius Cæsar." Each volume has a photogravure frontispiece, and is provided with notes, a glossary, and some selected criticism.

A translation of the "Nibelungenlied" into English verse, in the meter of the original, has been made by George Henry Needler, associate professor of German in the Toronto University College (Holt). This translation is accompanied by explanations and notes, and the author has written an introduction in which he has endeavored to supply "an historical background by summing up the results of the investigation into the

origin and growth of this great folk-poem of the Teutonic peoples."

A collection of charming weird folk-lore tales of Palestine has been made by J. E. Hanauer, under the title "Tales Told in Palestine" (Jennings & Graham), and these have been edited, with illustrations, by H. G. Mitchell. The life and faith of modern Judaism are reflected in these tales, which show the influence of later Arabian and Turkish conquest.

Prof. Barrett Wendell, of the English Department at Harvard University, has gathered his lectures on English literature, delivered on the Clark Foundation at Trinity College, Cambridge (1902-03), into a volume under the title "The Temper of the Seventeenth Century in English Literature" (Scribners). These are the first regular lectures concerning English literature ever given by an American at an English university. Together, they are practically a literary study of the age of Dryden. The purpose in these lectures was, he declares, to indicate the manner in which the national temper of England, as revealed in seventeenth-century literature, "changed from a temper ancestrally common to modern England and to modern America, and became, before the century closed, something which later time must recognize as distinctly, specifically, English."

Dr. Sir Richard C. Jebb, regius professor of Greek and fellow in Trinity College, Cambridge, has made a new translation of "The Tragedies of Sophocles" into English prose. This translation has been published in England and imported by the Macmillans.

A handy and useful little manual of literary study is Prof. Benjamin Heydrick's "How to Study Literature"

(Houghton, Mifflin). This little volume, now in its third edition, revised and enlarged, Professor Heydrick calls "a guide to the intensive study of literary masterpieces." The author, who is professor of English in the State Normal School, at Millersville, Pa., writes, not merely from theory, but from the background of long experience as a teacher.

Three studies of French literature in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries have just been published by the Macmillans. They are "Studies in Montaigne" and "Early Writings of Montaigne," by Miss Grace Norton, and Miss Dorothea F. Canfield's "Corneille and Racine in England." Miss Norton's studies of Montaigne are intended only for students of the old French essayist; perhaps, it might be said, only for enthusiasts over his work. His early writings, Miss Norton declares, should be studied in order to get a properly balanced knowledge of the famous essays themselves. The work on Corneille and Racine is a study of the English translations of these French dramatists, with special reference to their presentation, during the Elizabethan period, on the English stage. There was a time, this writer points out, when plays by Corneille and Racine enjoyed the greatest popularity in London.



BENJAMIN HEYDRICK.

A number of small volumes of poems appear this month. James Whitcomb Riley's "A Defective Santa Claus" (Bobbs-Merrill) is handsomely illustrated by C. M. Relyea and Will Vawter. It is in Mr. Riley's best vein. Levi Gilbert's "Incense" (Jennings & Graham) consists of a series of verses on religion, patriotism, and love. William Page Carter, one of the old type of Virginians, has published (Grafton Press) his "Echoes from the Glen," verses of sentiment, war, and home life. "Hagar" (Broadway Publishing Company) is a dramatic poem in three acts, by Rollin J. Wells, illustrated by William L. Hudson, and "Buttonwood and Other Poems" (Indianapolis: Octo graphic Review) is a long poem telling how the author has attempted to live the simple life (with some additional short verses by L. F. Bittle). "Kindly Light" (published at Oscawana, N. Y., by the author) is a collection of verses, with some prose interspersed, by John Milton Scott, with the sub-title "A Little Book of Yearning."



MR. STEPHEN PHILLIPS.

Robert Loveman has already won a distinct place among American lyric poets, and his latest little collection, "Songs from a Georgia Garden" and "Echoes from the Gates of Silence" (Lippincott), contain many bits of tenderness in his own cameo style.

Steven Phillips' latest play is entitled "The Sin of David." It is cast in the time of the English civil war between Charles II. and Parliament, in 1643. The book has been issued by the Macmillans.

#### NEW WORKS IN POPULAR SCIENCE.

Prof. Angelo Heilprin, F.G.R.S., of the Yale Scientific School, and member of other learned societies, and author of "Mont Pelée and the Tragedy of Martinique," has brought out another illustrated study of the great volcano in the West Indies, entitled "The Tower of Pelée" (Lippincott). Professor Heilprin, it will be remembered, was in Martinique at the time of the great eruption in the summer of 1902. He has visited the islands twice since then, and his study is both scientific and popular. There are twenty-two full-page plates to illustrate the eruption and its effects. The volume itself is folio size.

The series of volumes under the general title of "The Regions of the World," edited for the Appletons by H. J. Mackinder, of Oxford University, now comprises scholarly treatises on Great Britain, central Europe, the near East, North America, and India. The last-named volume has just come from the press. It is by Col. Sir Thomas Hungerford Holdich, K.C.M.G., K.C.I.E., C.B., R.E., late superintendent survey of India. Col. Holdich's work is the product of years of study in the country of which he writes. He does not emphasize statistics or details, but relies on descriptive methods, and some remarkably fine maps and diagrams. The entire peninsula is treated historically, geographically, geologically, and climatologically. The Indian depend-

encies, Baluchistan, Afghanistan, Kashmir, and the Himalayas, besides Asam, Burma, and Ceylon, are discussed in their relations to the peninsula itself. India he calls "the land of promise, where nature offers her gifts with lavish hand, and where the soil is peculiarly favorable to the reproduction of mankind, yet forming a sort of geographical cul-de-sac, with a few notable gateways leading thereto from the north, and no exit, except by sea, to the east, south, or west."

A useful, compact, and authoritative manual is the "Scientific American Reference Book" (Munn & Co.). This is a new venture of the *Scientific American*, compiled by Albert A. Hopkins and A. Russell Bond. It is to be an annual almanac, the result of "the queries of three generations of readers crystallized." It is based on thousands of questions asked of the periodical, which have been answered by eminent specialists and experts, so that there are more than fifty thousand facts systematized and verified. The volume is illustrated with color plates and many graphic diagrams.

A three-volume work by Dr. Edwin J. Houston, entitled "Electricity in Every-Day Life" (New York: P. F. Collier & Son), covers almost every form of electrical development in which the general public is likely to be interested. Dr. Houston has an excellent reputation as a writer in this field. He succeeds well in popularizing technical subjects. The present work is voluminous, but never wearisome. The manifold applications of electricity in modern industry are strikingly shown in the illustrations, of which there are about eight hundred in the three volumes.

A study of "the phenomena attendant upon rock-degeneration and soil-formation" is what Mr. George P. Merrill calls his book "Rocks, Rock-Weathering, and Soils" (Macmillan). Mr. Merrill is curator of geology in the United States National Museum, professor of geology in the Corcoran Scientific School, and author of "Stones for Building and Decoration." His work appears to be thoroughly satisfactory as a text-book.

#### BOOKS ABOUT ART.

A compact little encyclopædia of art is Dr. S. Reinach's "Story of Art Throughout the Ages," which has just been translated from the French by Florence Simmonds (Scribners). Dr. Reinach's work has been done chiefly for the Institute of France, of which he is a member. It is very thorough, and the notes and bibliography at the close of each chapter make the information contained easily accessible. The rendering into English is clear and satisfactory. There are nearly six hundred illustrations—reproductions of famous paintings, sculpture work, and architecture.

"To those who feel the need of some art expression, but who cannot attend an art school; to those who wish to follow the art of the craftsmen; to those teachers upon whom demand is made for knowledge of the crafts,"—to these is dedicated Mr. Frank G. Sanford's book, "The Art Crafts for Beginners" (Century). Mr. Sanford is director of the arts and crafts department of Chautauqua, and has a rich background of experience. The volume is illustrated by the author with many diagrams and suggestive pieces.

Encouraged by the success of her other books on handicraft ("How to Do Beadwork," "How to Make Baskets," etc.), Mary White has brought out another volume, entitled "How to Make Pottery" (Doubleday, Page). This is a manual of useful suggestions, with illustrations by the author.



It was just one hundred years ago that Alois Senefelder made his discovery which finally resulted in the art of lithography. Mr. David Cumming, lecturer on lithography in the Heriot-Watt College of Edinburgh and examiner for the lithographic class in the Technical College of Glasgow, has taken the occasion to prepare a "Handbook of Lithography" (Black, in London; imported by the Macmillans). The discovery and development of the art of lithography has been exceedingly interesting and important for the modern graphic arts.



ALOIS SENEFELDER.

Mr. Cumming considers the whole subject in this practical treatise, which he has prepared after forty years of experience as an actual worker. The fascinating story of his discovery and its development is told in the first chapter of the book.

A reminiscence of Homer Martin, the artist, by his wife, Mrs. E. G. Martin, has been published by William Macbeth. Martin's landscapes, it was once said, "look as if no one but God and himself had ever seen the places." This little sketch was well worth doing. It is illustrated by half-tone reproductions of Martin's better-known paintings. While very modestly done, Martin's claims to greatness are fully presented.

A notable contribution to the descriptive literature of art is Julia Cartwright's "Life and Art of Sandro Botticelli" (Dutton). This is a handsomely bound work, copiously illustrated with reproductions from famous works by Botticelli, with the famous Chigi Madonna as frontispiece. The author is evidently steeped in artist-lore, and in this handsome volume has presented a treatise of an art school as well as a biography of Botticelli.

The "Pictures in the Tate Gallery" is the title of a book imported by the Duttons. It is a study, with reproductions, of the famous paintings in the famous Tate gallery of London, written by C. Gasquoine Hartley, author of "A Record of Spanish Painting." The reproductions are in the finest style of photogravure. The treatment is by epochs represented in the gallery. It was well worth presenting this description of the art works in the splendid gallery presented by Sir Henry Tate to the British nation.

A collection of drawings by A. B. Frost, to which is prefaced an introduction by Joel Chandler Harris, is published by the Colliers, the pictures being interlarded with bits of verse by Wallace Irwin. Mr. Frost's work is essentially American, and all his people have the appearance of types which we have seen many times in city and country.

Seven new issues of "The Musician's Library" come to us from the Ditson Company. Philip Hale edits two volumes of "Modern French Songs," the first containing compositions from Bemberg to Franck, and the second, from Georges to Widor. All these songs are for high voice. They are by César Franck, Georges Bizet, Berlioz, Chaminade, Massenet, Gounod, Saint Saens, and d'Indy. There is an introduction, and short biograph-

ical sketches. Two volumes of Wagner lyrics, one for soprano and one for tenor, are edited by Carl Armbruster. These also contain introductory sketches, with bibliography and notes. "The Hungarian Rhapsodies" of Franz Liszt are edited by August Spanuth and John Orth. The introduction is by Mr. Spanuth, and there is a bibliography, and some advice to the player. Henry T. Finck has edited fifty songs by Franz Schubert, with an introduction, notes, and a bibliography. One of the specially noteworthy issues of the library is "Songs by Thirty Americans," edited by Rupert Hughes, with introduction and biographical sketches. We have already had occasion, several times, in these pages, to speak of the quality of these volumes. Typographically, they leave nothing to be desired. The form is folio, and they come in both cloth and paper bindings.

Daniel Gregory Mason is one of the few writers of

to-day who can see the philosophy of musical development in its relation to the general progress of the world, and can, moreover, write about this in an entertaining way. In his "Beethoven and His Forerunners" (Macmillan), Mr. Mason has traced the significance and influence of Haydn and Mozart in leading up immediately to Beethoven, and has placed these composers in their proper periods of musical history



DANIEL G. MASON.

as successors of Palestrina and forerunners of the modern spirit. The touch is that of one who not only knows but feels his theme in its greatness. This volume is illustrated with portraits.

#### RELIGIOUS, ETHICAL, AND PHILOSOPHICAL BOOKS.

The sermons and addresses delivered in America by His Grace Dr. Davidson, Archbishop of Canterbury, have been collected and published in book form under the title "The Christian Opportunity" (Macmillan). These addresses have been widely reported in the newspapers. In his introductory words, Dr. Davidson declares that they have been put in book form at the urgent request of many friends, and that his general purport or aim is indicated by the title of the book,—Christian opportunity being the fact which impressed him in connection with American life and destiny.

A study of revivals, which are coming to be known by the more general name of evangelism, is presented by Mr. William B. Riley, pastor of the First Baptist Church, in Minneapolis, under the title "The Perennial Revival: A Plea for Evangelism" (Winona Publishing Company). The author believes that evangelism has been on the decline during the past fifteen years in the United States, and he is convinced that another Moody is needed.

Dr. E. H. Johnson, professor in the Crozer Theological Seminary, and author of "An Outline of Systematic Theology," has written a study of "The Holy Spirit Then and Now" (Philadelphia: The Griffith & Rowland Press).



Still another attempt to reconcile science and religion has been made by Dr. Howard Agnew Johnston in his volume "Scientific Faith" (Winona Publishing Company). Dr. Johnston aims to demonstrate the reasonableness of the Christian faith, and also to make a book which a "Christian can give to an infidel."

Dr. William Rainey Harper, president of the University of Chicago, has collected a number of his talks to students, and they have been published by the University Press in book form, under the title "Religion and the Higher Life." Dr. Harper believes that the uni-

versities and colleges of the country are not performing their full function in the matter of religious education. He endeavors to stem the tide of materialism, and declares that the "least which can be done is to present to the student of each scholastic period of four and five years the practical questions of the religious life."

A really remarkable book, by a remarkable man, — Fechner's "Little Book of Life After Death," — has been translated from the German into English (Little, Brown) by Mary E. Wadsworth,

and has been published, with an introduction, by Prof. William James. Gustav Theodor Fechner was one of the great German philosophers of the past century, and his "Büchlein vom Leben nach dem Tode" offers the remarkable theory that each individual lives three lives on earth,—the first, before he is born; the second, between birth and death; and the third, which the philosopher describes as the real one, which is entered into by the process of death. This is the first translation from the original German.

The life-story of a unique character,—one of strength and sweetness,—is "The Life of Father Taylor, the Sailor Preacher." This biography and character sketch of the man whom every "deep sea" sailor knew a generation ago has been published by the Boston Port and Seamen's Aid Society. Father Taylor's chapel, in North Square, Boston, was the resort of the great and the humble. The volume is illustrated with portraits, and has an excellent index.

The Religious Education Association held its second annual convention in Philadelphia, in March, 1904. The

proceedings of that meeting were notable for the range and importance of the topics discussed, as well as for the eminence of the men who took part in the discussions. The addresses and papers at that time were grouped about the general theme of "The Bible in Practical Life," and have now been published by the Association (Chicago: 153-155 LaSalle Street). Probably on no other occasion have so many phases of religious education been presented at one time by specialists of so many and varied types of belief and education. The general purposes of the association were set forth in a paper contributed to the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for September, 1903, by the first president of the association, Dean Sanders, of Yale University. The present volume is an evidence that the association is accomplishing in great part the objects for which it was founded, and which were clearly set forth by Dean Sanders in his article.

"Bible Study Popularized" (Chicago: Winona Publishing Company) is the title of a book in which the Rev. Frank T. Lee indicates certain lines and methods of study and gives practical suggestions and illustrative examples, with a view to stimulating a more earnest study of the Bible. The book, as its title indicates, makes no pretensions to a critical treatment of the theme.

In "The Story of St. Paul" (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Prof. Benjamin W. Bacon, of Yale, makes a

frank comparison between the two sources for our knowledge of the life of Paul—the Acts and the Epistles. Professor Bacon's purpose is to point out the differences in these two sources as preliminary to any attempt to harmonize the records. Although this is in the province of criticism, Professor Bacon's treatment is of a popular nature. His book is, indeed, a union of constructive biography and scientific criticism. The

book is the outgrowth of a series of university-extension lectures delivered at Providence, R. I., and New Haven, Conn. No attempt has been made to transform these lectures into a scientific treatise.

"Social Law in the Spiritual World" is the title of a new book by Prof. Rufus M. Jones, of Haverford College (Philadelphia: John C. Winston Company). While the title at once suggests the famous work of the late Henry Drummond, and the book is in a way an attempt to deal with the same problems as those discussed in his "Natural Law in the Spiritual World," Professor Jones is concerned rather with the psychological aspects of the subject than with the biological. In his view, there is a greater stress to-day in the psychological than in the so-called natural sciences. As Professor Jones puts it, the Christian minister to-day is beginning to discover that every one of his precious articles of faith must finally submit to a psychological test. "He has weathered geology and biology; can he peradventure bring his ship past these new headlands?" Professor Jones very tersely sums up the present-day meaning of



DR. WILLIAM R. HARPER.



PROF. BENJAMIN W. BACON.



FATHER TAYLOR.

personality and social relationship. His discussion of the modern religious problem is from a somewhat novel point of view.

Prof. George Adam Smith, the Scottish theologian, is known in this country as a "higher eritic" and a



DR. GEORGE ADAM SMITH.

heretic rather than as a preacher. The volume of his sermons just published (A. C. Armstrong & Son) may do something to dispel false notions of Professor Smith's theological system. "The Forgiveness of Sins" is the title sermon, while other topics treated in the volume are "The Word of God," "Temptation," and "The Moral Meaning of Hope."

Dr. Henry E. Robins has written "The Ethics of the Christian Life" (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society), in which he expands the positions taken in his little volume, published a few years ago, "The Harmony of Ethics with Theology." The recent tendency to specialization in the departments of ethics and biology gives all the more distinction to a work which undertakes to harmonize the two. Dr. Robins recognizes ethics in the application of its principles to individual, political, and social life as a dominant theme of modern thought, a fact full of promise of good to the race.

Fewer books than formerly are written with the avowed purpose of reconciling science and religion. Such a volume, for instance, as "The Dynamics of Christianity," by Edward Mortimer Chapman (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), while it appeals at the same time to the religious people and to the men of science, is written with the assumption that there is no quarrel between the two. The reconciliation of science and religion seems to this writer to be "like an attempt to harmonize the fact of sunrise with the joy of walking and working in the light." It is the author's aim to define the source and origin of power in Christianity. Mr. Chapman develops his theme in an interesting way through citations from the writings of famous men.

President William De Witt Hyde, of Bowdoin College, gives a lucid exposition of the fundamental principles of the Epicurean, Stoic, Platonic, Aristotelian, and Christian philosophies in a little volume entitled "From Epicurus to Christ: A Study in the Principles of Personality" (Macmillan). The book is made up of extracts from the founders of each system, together with quotations from modern writers on the subject, as well as scholarly comments on both by President Hyde.

Mr. Robert E. Speer, secretary of the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church in the United States, has just completed his "Missions and Modern History" (Revell), a two-volume "study of the missionary aspects of some great movements of the nineteenth century." Some of his chapters were given as lectures before a number of American colleges, in the effort to make Americans more familiar than they are with "the great forces which have shaped the life and destiny of the 1,000,000,000 people who have been pro-

foundly affected by the missionary movements." In this work his intention has been to indicate the place of missionary enterprise in the politics of the world.

Those who are interested in raising the standard of biblical instruction in this country will find in Prof. George William Pease's "An Outline of a Bible-School Curriculum" (University of Chicago Press) many valuable suggestions. In this book there are outlines of reading and study courses for the kindergarten and primary grades, as well as for the junior, intermediate, and senior departments. The book is fully in line with the principles and methods advocated by the Religious Education Association.

Prof. Edward Howard Griggs has attained unusual success as a popular lecturer on psychology and ethics. He is also the author of two books that have had a wide reading,—"The New Humanism" and "A Book of Meditations." A new work by him, entitled "Moral Education" (New York: B. W. Huebsch), de-



PROF. E. H. GRIGGS.

velops a well-rounded philosophy of education, emphasizing as the central feature of such a system the cultivation of character. The book addresses itself especially to the teacher, but will be found interesting and helpful to all who are concerned in any way with the rearing of children. A full bibliography and ample footnotes serve as guides to the best and freshest literature on the various phases of the subject.

Many other books have come to our table which deal with various religious topics, whether directly or indirectly. In the field of church history we have "The Church Covenant Idea: Its Origin and Its Development," by Champlin Burrage (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society), and a "History of Presbyterianism on Prince Edward Island," by the Rev. John M. McLeod (Chicago: Winona Publishing Company). The synthetic study of the Bible is advocated in the Rev. Dr. James M. Gray's little book, "How to Master the English Bible" (Chicago: Winona Publishing Company), while the booklet entitled "What Is the Bible?" by J. A. Ruth (Chicago: Open Court Publishing Company), sets forth the view that the Bible is a purely human composition. This position is taken, however, in a reverent spirit. An unconventional discussion of religious and biblical themes is woven into the story entitled "The Bonanza Bible Class," by Henry F. Cope (Chicago: Winona Publishing Company). We have also received "The Francis E. Clark Yearbook" (Boston: United Society of Christian Endeavor); "The Story of Joseph for Young People," by Isabella Webb Parks (Cincinnati: Jennings & Graham); "The Attractive Church," by the Rev. Cortland Myers, D.D. (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society); and from the Winona Publishing Company, of Chicago, "Study to Be Quiet," by Edgar W. Work; "The Key to the Kingdom," by the Rev. Charles E. Bradt; "Greatness," by Henry Ostrom; "The Holy Spirit, Our Teacher in Prayer," by Dr. R. A. Walton; and "Elisha, the Man of the Gods," by R. Clarence Dodds, D.D.

One of the Orient's learned missionaries to the West, Baba Bharati, a distinguished Brahman of Calcutta, now lecturing in Boston (where he was recently elected vice-president of the Peace Congress), has written a book to interpret the Hindu belief as to the origin and meaning of life and the evolution of the universe. This volume, which is entitled "Sree Krishna, the Lord of Love" (published by the Krishna Samáj, New York), is intended to be "the history of the universe from its birth to its dissolution." Baba Bharati has aimed to impress his readers with the substance of Hindu thought on religion and philosophy, in purely Eastern dress. The volume is really a clear history of the origin, nature, and evolution of the universe as the Oriental mind perceives it; it is a clear statement of the doctrine of Karma; an exposition of the caste system; a beautiful story of the Oriental Christ, and perhaps the clearest statement ever published of the Hindu cosmogony. Baba Bharati's style is direct, simple, and clear, and his thinking high and sane. It is the statement of a strong, manly believer in a philosophy and a set of ideals which, though they come from the pagan East, make a very strong appeal to the Occidental reader. The love of the source of the universe, which in the Hindu philosophy is Krishna, is the determining force of the universe. It is an extraordinary book,—the fascinating exposition of an exalted philosophy.

An ethical and spiritual interpretation of "Parsifal" is the latest literary and philosophical effort of Dr. R. Heber Newton. It is published by the Upland Farm Alliance, Oscawana-on-Hudson, N. Y.

A thought-provoking little volume on "The Practice of Self-Culture" (Macmillan) comes from the pen of Hugh Black, succeeding and rounding out his series, "Culture and Restraint," "Friendship," and "Work." Mr. Black admits that self-culture is in itself not a complete ideal for human life, but it has its place in our necessary education. And in this little volume he endeavors "to lay hold of a comprehensive scheme into which our efforts will fall easily, and the possession of which acts as an inducement."

#### PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDIES.

The latest contribution to the "pathology of economics" is Dr. G. Frank Lydston's "Diseases of Society" (Lippincott). This is really a study of the vice and crime problem from a medical standpoint. The volume is intended primarily for the professional reader, although it is dedicated "to those who are friends of the man beneath in the battle of life and foes of the conditions that placed him there." Dr. Lydston, who holds the chair of surgery in the State University of Illinois, and that of criminal anthropology in the Chicago-Kent College of Law, and who has, besides, had a long experience in penal and charitable institutions in New York, treats his subject in a very radical way. Human nature, he believes, cannot masquerade before the physician; therefore, he regards the medical man as especially well equipped to study the question of social conditions in their relation to crime. Dr. Lydston considers the police criminal, the anarchist, the sexual pervert, the oppression of wealth, the negro question, and other delicate social problems.

An introduction to the study of psychology, with special reference to "the structure and function of human consciousness," has been prepared, under the simple title "Psychology" (Holt), by James Rowland Angell, professor of psychology in the University of

Chicago. It is essentially a text-book, and is abundantly supplied with cross-references.

#### BOOKS ABOUT OUT-OF-DOOR LIFE.

Two recent volumes of the "American Sportsman's Library," edited by Caspar Whitney for the Macmillans, are "Lawn Tennis," by J. Parmly Paret, and "Photography for the Sportsman Naturalist," by L. W. Brownell. Mr. Paret, who is an authority on tennis, treats of the past, present, and future of the sport. He believes tennis to be more scientific, as well as more severe, than similar games played indoors. The book is copiously illustrated, and has a glossary of terms, an index, and a full bibliography of the game. A chapter has been added on lacrosse, by William Harvey Madden. Mr. Brownell's book shows, not only the expert, but the lover. He understands and is devoted to both photography and nature. The illustrations in the volume were all made from life.

A useful, sincere little work on "How Nature Study Should Be Taught" (Hinds, Noble & Eldredge) has been written by Dr. Edward T. Bigelow. The book consists of a series of talks to teachers, with an introduction by Professor Gordy (pedagogy), of New York University, and some suggestions as to the proper method of introducing nature-study by Prof. H. A. Surface, zoölogist of the Pennsylvania State College.

John Lane has just added to his "Handbooks of Practical Gardening" a volume on the iris, by R. Irwin Lynch. The book is entitled "The Book of the Iris." Mr. Lynch is the curator of the university botanic gardens of Cambridge, and a member of the Linnæan and many other botanical societies. It is very handsomely illustrated with full-page half-tones.

Mr. William Seymour Edwards' book "Into the Yukon" (Robert Clarke Company) is the story of a tour, made in 1903, through the Canadian Northwest, the gulfs and fjords of the North Pacific, the valley of the Upper Yukon, the Golden Klondike, and some parts of California and the middle West. The story was originally a series of letters written for the home circle. The volume is illustrated with snapshot photographs.

#### OTHER LATE PUBLICATIONS.

A very attractively printed exposition of the principles of jiu-jitsu, the wonderful method of attack and self-defense, has been published by the Japan Publishing Company. It has been prepared by Capt. Henry H. Skinner, and is fully illustrated with poses by B. H. Kuwashima, of Columbia University. Literally, the expression "jiu-jitsu" means "the gentle art of making your opponent use his strength to his own disadvantage." Nature has not endowed the Japanese with large and powerful bodies, but they make up in skill and science more than what they lack in size and strength. This treatise seems to be a very helpful and intelligible account of the entire system of jiu-jitsu, which cannot fail to be a valuable addition to the other methods of the manly art of self-defense already known to English-speaking peoples.

Dr. Dudley Allen Sargent, director of the Hemenway Gymnasium of Harvard University, who has devoted his life to the advancement of physical culture, has written a work entitled "Health, Strength, and Power" (H. M. Caldwell), in which he has aimed to make physical training more popular by devising a series of exercises which require no apparatus whatever. The book is in-



tended to appeal, not to athletes, but to sedentary people of both sexes. It is profusely illustrated from original photographs.

Prof. C. Howard Hinton, whose name is well known to the student of metageometry, has made an attempt, in a volume entitled "The Fourth Dimension" (Lane), to give a popular exposition, without mathematical subtleties, of a space of higher dimensions than that of length, breadth, and thickness. The subject has been given a great deal of attention by mathematicians and the imaginary faculty of some great mathematical minds has given prominence to the rather attractive theory that there is a space of four dimensions, which, if we could conceive of it, would explain electricity, life, soul, thought, and spirit as a mode of motion in this space. The volume is written as a serious dissertation on such a space, and the subject being treated in a popular fashion, it requires no special mathematical training to understand it. Beginning with the supposition that we might inhabit a plane, and might, later on, learn to conceive of a space of three dimensions, the writer reasons that by analogy we may some time learn to conceive of and occupy a space of four dimensions. The book is appropriately illustrated.

Hertel, Jenkins & Co. (Chicago) have issued a compendium of "Safe Methods, or How to Do Business," by E. T. Roe. This is a useful book, consisting of a compilation of business law, facts, and forms, penmanship and correspondence, tables, "short cuts," and "ready reckoners,"—"the essence of volumes in a nutshell."

One of Charles Wagner's earlier books has just been translated under the title "The Voice of Nature, or the Soul of Things" (Ogilvie Publishing Co.). The translation is by Olive Harper. "The Voice of Nature" is written in the same vein as Pastor Wagner's other works, "The Simple Life" and "The Busy Life."

Some time ago the New York *Tribune* undertook to secure a number of articles by well-known public men eminent in their special lines, much of which would be a sort of open letter to parents who desire guidance as to the future careers of their sons. These letters have been published in book form (Saalfield) under the title, "Careers for the Coming Men." They include articles on teaching, by Dr. Rush Rhees, president of the University of Rochester; the navy, by Rear Admiral George Wallace Melville; commercial life, by Charles Stewart Smith, ex-president of the New York Chamber of Commerce; railroading, by George H. Daniels, general passenger agent New York Central Railroad; law, by John De Witt Warner; electricity, by Thomas Commerford Martin, editor *Electrical World and Engineer*; life insurance, by John F. Dryden, United States Senator, president of the Prudential Insurance Company; journalism, by Whitelaw Reid, editor of the New York *Tribune*; the stage, by James K. Hackett; banking, by Bradford Rhodes, president of the Thirty-Fourth Street National Bank; and authorship, by Cyrus Townsend Brady.

Burroughs, Wellcome & Co., of London, Sydney, and Cape Town, have been collecting "rare and curious objects relating to medicine, chemistry, pharmacy, and the allied sciences" for an exhibition to be held shortly in London. They sent out as an advance courier a little pamphlet, "Ancient Cymric Medicine." This is a clever, informing little pamphlet, illustrated with a title in the ancient Cymric language.

"The Doctor's Leisure Hour" (Saalfield) is a volume of anecdotes and verse made up of "facts and fancies of interest to the doctor and his patient." The work is edited by Charles Wells Moulton and arranged by Porter Davies, M.D.

A very clever little historical skit is Will Parkes' "Comic Snapshots From Early English History" (Dutton). A number of famous incidents in the history of Roman and Saxon England are seized upon and "hit off" in irresistibly funny colored cartoons.

Three new books in the *Century* "Thumb-Nail Series" have been issued: "An Old English Christmas," by Washington Irving, and two Shakespeare plays, "Romeo and Juliet" and "As you Like It."

Dr. Maynard M. Metcalf, professor of biology in the Woman's College of Baltimore, has expanded his series of lectures, delivered before the college, into a book which he entitles "An Outline of the Theory of Organic Evolution" (Macmillan). This book, he explains in his preface, is not intended for biologists, but for those who desire a brief introductory outline of this phase of biological theory. The work is very handsomely printed and copiously illustrated.

In the seventh volume of the Jewish Encyclopedia (Funk & Wagnalls), one of the most noteworthy articles is that on Jerusalem, accompanied, as it is, by a panorama of the modern city of Jerusalem from the Mount of Olives, together with a series of five maps, each of which represents a different epoch in the city's life. The same volume contains dissertations on eight of the books of the Bible,—"Jeremiah," "Job," "Joel," "Jonah," "Joshua," "Judges," "Kings," and "Lamentations." In addition to the discussion of bibliographical topics, a great mass of literature related to the Talmud has been made available to Christian scholars in this encyclopedia. Departments of history, theology, and modern biography are also very rich in materials which have never before been exploited in any work of this character published in the English language. In the eighth volume, which has just been issued from the press, there are nearly one hundred monographs on important subjects. Within the scope of this work are included topics of special interest in the field of American history, and in particular States, like Maryland and Massachusetts. In the biographical department, we note particularly the sketches of the Mendelssohns, and of Lombroso, the criminologist (written by Dr. Max Nordau). There is also an interesting account of the late Moses Montefiore, the Jewish philanthropist of London. In the matter of illustration, the two volumes of the encyclopedia recently issued are in no way inferior to their predecessors.

"Seven Lamps for the Teachers' Way" (Ginn), by Frank H. Hill, consists of a series of lectures intended to be of service to teachers. Dr. Hill had a long experience in educational work, and at the time of his death was *ex officio* one of the two commissioners of the Massachusetts School Fund, a trustee of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, and a member of the School Examination Board of Harvard University.

"The Story of Rapid Transit," by Beckles Willson (Appletons), is a report of progress covering all the various modern methods and systems of communication,—the railway, the telegraph, aerial navigation, the telephone, pneumatic tubes, the bicycle, the automobile, and the street railway.



# THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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GRAND DUKE SERGIUS, OF RUSSIA, ASSASSINATED FEBRUARY 17, 1905.

(The strong men of the House of Romanoff, the men of blood and iron, who are upholding the autocracy, are, not the Czar, who "has been educated to be a fool," but the much-hated reactionary grand dukes,—brothers, uncles, and cousins of Nicholas. There are seven of them: The Grand Duke Michael, brother of the Czar, and, until the birth of the Czarevitch, the heir-presumptive; the Grand Duke Vladimir, commander-in-chief of the army; the Grand Duke Alexis, high admiral of the navy; the Grand Duke Michael, grand-uncle of the Czar, field marshal in the army; the Emperor's cousins, the Grand Dukes Cyril and Boris, sons of Vladimir; and the Grand Duke Michael, son of his grand-uncle. There are several other distant cousins who can claim the title, but they are not in the "ring." The Grand Duke Sergius, who was killed by the explosion of a bomb near the Kremlin, had been governor of Moscow; he was uncle of the Czar and brother of the Grand Dukes Vladimir and Alexis. His widow is the sister of the Empress.)